

STUDIES ON
COMPULSORY
EDUCATION

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

by JEAN DEBIESSE

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Joint IBE-Unesco publication

Compulsory Education and its Prolongation

STUDIES ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION. II
COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

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by JEAN DEBIESSE

UNESCO

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FOREWORD

The present report is intended to form one of the working papers of the XIVth International Conference on Public Education, to be held in July 1951, under the auspices of the Unesco-IBE Joint Committee, for the purpose of studying the question of compulsory education.

The report on *Compulsory Education in France* is one of a series of three studies relating to countries (Australia, France, England) in which the problem may be considered to have found a satisfactory solution within educational systems of varying degrees of centralization.

Another series of three reports is devoted to countries (Ecuador, Iraq and Thailand) where the problem of illiteracy is complicated by the fact that the entire educational system needs to be adapted to the rhythm of general evolution.

The other two studies in the present series are: *Raising the School-leaving Age*, and *Child Labour in Relation to Compulsory Education*, prepared under the auspices of ILO.

The authors of these various studies were given purely general indications as to the kind of document desired, and no uniform plan was imposed on them. Their choice was determined by their particular outlook on the problem and by the form in which it arises in their respective countries. They were also given full liberty to express their own opinions. Thus, as will be seen, one of the studies is a strong argument in favour of administrative centralization, whilst another advocates decentralization and the encouragement of local initiative. None of the points of view expressed necessarily corresponds to Unesco's, with the exception, of course, of the general principle of free and compulsory education for all and of the need for its enforcement in all countries and territories, whether self-governing or not.

Each of these documents should be considered as part of a whole, for its real value can be appreciated only when read in conjunction with the others. A comparison of the texts may enable us to consider the important problem of compulsory schooling as a whole, and, by showing us the different results obtained in this direction in the various countries, permit us to determine its

degree of urgency in each country. This preparatory survey may also help us to remember that the problem, which is common—in varying degrees—to all countries, has not only a spatial, but also a temporal aspect. In the dissemination of knowledge, progress must be continuous, although it can never lead to perfection. Indeed there may be temporary setbacks, as is shown by the statistics concerning the percentage of illiterates in France, which although still very low, nevertheless showed an increase after the first world war.

Lastly, the very title of this series of reports shows the purpose of the survey in question: a report on compulsory education necessarily involves an examination of the methods of applying such a principle. Moreover, the idea of compulsory schooling is based on a conception of man, on a certain faith in his perfectibility by education, on a desire for progress and emancipation, which lie at the very foundation of all true democratic ideas. But, to the extent that we want to make compulsory education a fact, our task is a creative one, extending over a long period, profiting by results already achieved, making use of all the existing possibilities, and eliminating the remaining obstacles. The problem is inseparable from the historical, spiritual, social and economic environment, which not only explains its origin, but provides its elements. The six reports on compulsory schooling in six countries dissimilar in their past and present, aim at throwing light on the process by which, at different times and under different conditions, the ideal of education for all has gradually become or is becoming an established fact.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	9
CHAPTER ONE. Historical background.	
From the Gallo-Roman period to the end of the eighteenth century.	11
From the end of the eighteenth century to the Third Republic.	15
From the Third Republic onwards	20
CHAPTER TWO. Compulsory education in France: Legal provisions and enforcement.	
Legal provisions governing compulsory school attendance	29
Enforcement	29
Administrative supervision of enrolment and attendance	
Punishment of infringements	
Encouragement of school attendance	
How far the system is satisfactory	31
Results achieved	
Possible improvements	
Special cases arising as a result of compulsory school attendance	40
Alsace-Lorraine	
Other special cases (handicapped children, gypsies, etc.)	
CHAPTER THREE. Present position of primary education in France.	
Public primary schools.	48
Enforcement of principles	48
Administrative organization.	54
Recruitment of staff: status of staff	56
Educational organization	58
Curricula, time-tables, holidays, etc.	60
Buildings.	64
Private schools	65

CHAPTER FOUR. Adaptation of primary education to new conditions.

School health.	68
New methods of education	68
Post-school education and rural domestic science	69
Courses for North African and foreign workers	69

CHAPTER FIVE. Problems of the future.

Reform of the school system	70
The problem of numbers: present and future needs.	71
Primary education and educational reform schemes.	74

CONCLUSIONS	77
LIST OF APPENDICES	81
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY	147

INTRODUCTION

As early as the fifth century B.C., the sage Solon proclaimed in his Constitution that it was every father's duty to give the necessary education to his sons. Yet it was only at a relatively recent date—the nineteenth century—that great modern countries, including France, provided general education for children. The reason is that the education and instruction of an entire people require sociological, economic and political conditions which co-existed for the first time during the last century. While democracy was establishing itself, the resources of an industrialized economy were creating new possibilities. At the same time, modern society saw the gradual growth of the desire to give all children 'equal opportunities' to advance along the path of knowledge. It became an accepted truth that the greatness of a country depended not only on the eminence of its élite, but also on the technical skill, merit and high intellectual standard of its entire population. What had hitherto been a luxury reserved for the leisured rich or a cherished hope of philosophers, became a fundamental need of modern democracies. That is the origin of compulsory education, which in the name of the State, establishes the rights of the child in the contemporary world.

In dealing with this subject in the present study, we shall lay particular emphasis on the 'public service' aspect of primary education, confining ourselves to what has been done in metropolitan France.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The historical development of primary education in France can be divided into three periods:

From the Gallo-Roman period to the end of the eighteenth century.

From the end of the eighteenth century to the Third Republic.

From the Third Republic onwards.

FROM THE GALLO-ROMAN PERIOD TO THE END OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

The Roman conquest led to the opening of a few boys' and girls' primary schools in the large towns—the Latin texts mention schools at Poitiers, Lyons, etc.—but the social, economic and political balance of the Gallo-Roman provinces was upset by invasions. The central power became inefficient. The country was more or less ruined; men and women had to work very hard for their daily bread. Even children of tender age were put to work in the fields or the market-stalls. Christianity then began to exert a growing influence. The Church became the acknowledged spiritual guide and an established temporal power. Centres of civilization clustered round the abbeys and cathedrals; it became necessary to instruct the future priests, and so the Church began to establish schools. One of the earliest texts on education is the capitulary of 23 March 789:

'The servants of God shall minister not only to young serfs but also to the sons of free men. Children's schools shall be established for the teaching of reading. The psalms, music, singing, arithmetic and grammar shall be taught in all the monasteries and bishoprics.'¹

Schools attached to bishoprics, known as 'external schools', were attended by paying pupils. Those attached to monasteries, called 'internal schools', had a more ambitious curriculum (rhetoric, grammar, logic, theology, canon law). The total number of schools was very small and they were reserved, moreover, exclusively for boys. Instruction was no longer being given to girls. The women

¹ A. Léaud et E. Glay. *L'école primaire en France*. Paris: Cité française, 1935. Vol. I, p. 39.

and the common people had to content themselves with the 'Stone Bible': the church or cathedral.

The Middle Ages witnessed the triumph of the Church, which directed foreign policy, organized crusades, crowned or deposed kings and emperors. Civil society became imbued with deep religious feeling. The pattern of life was that of the saint, whose body was mortified by asceticism, whilst his whole thought was centred on salvation. That thought never went beyond the truths proclaimed to be revealed and therefore infallible. Dogmatism reigned. Teaching naturally adapted itself to these ideas. Education was austere, discipline rigorous, and all games and pastimes were forbidden. The teacher made regular use of the rod or whip to drive out wickedness, stupidity and laziness. In these schools, where books were rare and expensive, pupils were taught to exercise their memories. A well educated man was one with a well-stocked memory, able to recite or quote long passages. The episcopal schools gradually became more prosperous and numerous, particularly after the decree of the Third Lateran Council (1179):

'The Church of God being bound, like a loving mother, to provide for the bodily and spiritual needs of the poor, and desirous of helping poor children to read and advance along the path of learning, bids each cathedral appoint a teacher to give free instruction to the clergy of the church as well as to poor pupils, and provide him with a remuneration sufficient for his essential needs. . . .'

'A teacher shall be attached to other churches and to monasteries in which funds were formerly allocated for that purpose. . . .'¹

In each bishopric, the second dignitary of the Chapter (the canon in charge of the choir, known as the precentor) was responsible for the appointment of teachers and for all decisions regarding curricula and schools. At the same time, a kind of secular education gradually developed. The rise of the communes in the twelfth century led to the establishment of 'municipal schools' in the North, in Alsace and in the Rhone valley. The Church was opposed to these schools, but some of them survived until the fifteenth century. Thus a decision of the Municipal Council of Avignon, dated 18 December 1478, fixed the amount of the tax allocated to communal education: 'a tax of ten *écus*, which Jews are required to pay'. Moreover, the Corporation of popular scribes (*maîtres écrivains jurés, maîtres de l'encre et de la plume d'oie*) instituted classes for its apprentices. But the precentors claimed the right to supervise and clericalize all such schools, and the corporation soon had to renounce the privilege of training its own apprentices.

¹ A. Léaud et E. Glay, *Op. cit.*, p. 46.

In the absence of statistics, it is difficult to give an accurate picture of the school situation at that time. We may assume that schools throughout France were attended by no more than a few thousand boys. As regards girls, the marked success of the book written by the Chevalier de la Tour Landry (in 1372), on the education of girls leaves us no doubt on this matter: 'Every woman should aim to be unlearned, good, modest and gentle.'

With the advent of the Renaissance and the Reformation, a revolution took place in teaching.

Jean Gerson (1363-1429) advocates a simple education in the language commonly used. He advises teachers to be patient, gentle and affectionate with their pupils, to shield them from the hideous cruelties of the period. 'The teacher should be first and foremost a father to his pupils.'

Erasmus (1467-1536) in his *De Pueris statim ac liberaliter instituendis* . . . recommends mild discipline, attractive teaching methods, hygiene and an education adapted to the ability of the pupil.

Rabelais (1490-1552) demands a simultaneous development of body and mind; all the child's faculties should be developed harmoniously and without constraint.

Montaigne (1523-92) in the chapter of his Essays dealing with the education of children (*De l'institution des enfants*), aims at equipping his pupils to play their part in the world. He disapproves of scholasticism and the overtaxing of the child's memory. He pours scorn on the 'miserable pedants' who 'pilfer from books a smattering of knowledge which they then vaunt in the face of their fellows'. He tries, by active and flexible methods, to develop a critical sense in pupils.

These authors show us the tremendous social change that had taken place since the Middle Ages. Men of culture were now looked up to. Girls were allowed to go to school. The power of the Throne, much strengthened, had replaced the hitherto omnipotent Church. The country was richer and producing more food; through a prosperous commerce, new resources were available. Men were becoming less bound to menial tasks and were making better use of draught-animals, water-mills and wind-mills. Schools were increasing in number. Since the invention of the printing-press, books were both cheaper and more abundant.

There were schools for which fees were payable: small schools run by the parish priests, where reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, reckoning (both with counters and on paper), catechism and plain-song were taught; and a few schools run by laymen who lived by pupils' fees.

Free schools were also opened to meet the wishes of part of the

population. For instance, in 1560, the States-General of Orleans adopted the principle of free and (surprisingly for that period) *compulsory* elementary education.

By an Order of 1724, the consuls and mayors received royal and parliamentary authorization to establish free elementary schools with the proceeds of a special tax. Since the Council of Trent, parish priests had organized 'charity schools' for poor children. The Protestants had opened their 'hedge schools' outside the towns. In spite of opposition by the precentors, J. B. de La Salle (1651-1719) and his 'Brothers of the Christian Schools' founded popular schools.

With the Counter-Reformation and religious persecutions, however, the liberal spirit with which some schools had been imbued since the Renaissance gradually died. Discipline became rigid once more, and teaching formalistic, tedious and routinish. But education for girls was gradually established in certain special schools (Fénelon, *Traité de l'éducation des filles*, 1680).

The distribution of schools throughout France was extremely ill-balanced. Whilst the towns and most of the market-centres in the East, Alsace, Burgundy, the North and around Paris possessed schools, there were almost none in Brittany and the Massif Central. Moreover, the results achieved by the schools were mediocre, because they were served by mediocre teachers. The latter were generally bound by contract to a particular parish and appointed by the parish priest or the parents' assembly. They had some other occupation besides teaching, as their salaries were extremely small. When paid by the commune, these salaries varied from thirty to 150 *livres* per annum. The fees varied from three to four *sols* per annum per pupil (1780). The teacher was frequently paid in kind. There were no classrooms; the teacher therefore used the sacristy or his market-stall, as it was only by exercising some other occupation that he was able to make a living. Thus, in the village of Escolières in Burgundy, eight teachers succeeded one another from 1744 to 1792: weavers, a carpenter, a vine-grower, sacristans, a gardener and a master craftsman. Generally the teacher's duties were to 'look after the church-clock, ring the bell at Angelus and during divine service, make the responses at Mass, adorn the altars, clean the candlesticks and. . . . run the children's school'. There were teachers' 'fairs' in Provence and Savoy; at these men with quills in their hats would hire themselves out as teachers for seasonal periods ranging from six to eight months.

The status of teachers was determined by certain regulations. 'They shall wear their hair shorter than ordinary laymen. They may not eat or drink in taverns in the district where they live, play the violin in public, or attend public dances, social gatherings in the

evening or pantomimes, under penalty of being deprived of their office'. (Diocese of Amiens 1732.)¹

The results produced by this kind of education, in the hands of makeshift teachers, were far from brilliant. A study by Mr. Maggiolo based on a scrutiny of the marriage certificates between 1786 and 1790, shows that fifty-three per cent of the men and seventy-three per cent of the women were illiterate.

There were some 10,000 classes attended by a few hundred thousand pupils. School attendance was poor and lasted only about five or six months a year.

Moreover, in spite of efforts made by the Church and later by the Crown—under the ordinances of 1698 and 1724, each community was enjoined to provide itself with a schoolmaster or mistress—primary teaching at the end of the eighteenth century was a luxury reserved for less than forty per cent of the children in the country. This was because education was not free, and the poor were therefore unable to benefit by it. The children of the common people were still put to work at the age of eight or ten; they had neither the time nor the means to go to school. Nor had the State sufficient funds to be able to provide free education.

FROM THE END OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY TO THE THIRD REPUBLIC

We must go back to Descartes (1569-1650) for the origin of the new atmosphere which gradually grew up during the eighteenth century under the influence of the philosophers and encyclopaedists.

A new state of mind became apparent, based on the conviction that man's reason could discover the truth objectively, deal with difficulties, one by one, and proceed from the simple to the compound. The lasting influence of the *Discourse on Method* is, indeed, due to this appeal to reason in the training of the mind and will.

But it was Rousseau's *Emile* (1762) which really provided the basis for modern education. The teacher must respect the child's individual consciousness and personality. The child is entitled to instruction, but must be allowed to develop gradually and normally. His intellectual development should be progressive and largely influenced by his daily life and environment. It could be proved without difficulty that this recognition of the child's personality, this reaction against the constraints imposed upon it by society and educational routine, were at the root of present-day educational theories. More directly Rousseau's influence exerted itself upon the

¹ A. Léaud et E. Glay, *Op. cit.*, p. 159.

revolutionary legislators, imbued with the doctrine of the relations between the individual and the State, formulated in the 'Social Contract'.

The Revolution of 1789

As a result of the writings of the philosophers, public education became a matter of current interest. Numerous petitions put forward by the States-General demanded the establishment of a multitude of primary schools in towns and villages. The idea grew up that education was a public service which should be organized by the State in the interests both of the citizens and of society. This service should be open to all, and therefore free. The petition of the Third Estate of Paris requested 'that in every parish with more than 100 families, a schoolmaster or mistress be appointed to give free education to all children of both sexes'. These schools were, however, to be free from the control of the Church, which but yesterday had been all-powerful. Thus deputies, university professors, lawyers and philosophers unanimously demanded State control of education. Education was to be secularized. The Revolution, in drawing up the Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed the right to education. A State administration was to be set up to supervise all teaching establishments and to ensure discipline and uniformity. In its desire to achieve national unity, the First Republic was in favour of a *centralized* and *uniform* system of education for all the provinces.

The revolutionary Assemblies drew up general plans for education. The first was that presented by Talleyrand to the Constituent Assembly. It provided that education should be open to all and that there should be no restrictions on teaching, without, however, stipulating that schooling should be compulsory. The second plan was prepared by Condorcet for the Legislative Assembly: five degrees of education were to be established, the first being the 'primary schools' (one school for every village with 400 inhabitants or more). Both these plans were liberal in conception. Those drawn up by the Convention were however much more authoritarian. The nation must be educated: 'After food, education is the people's greatest need' (Danton). . . . 'Finance, war and public education are of urgent and continuous importance' (Decree of 21 January 1793).

Robespierre read out in the Assembly the plan for National Education drawn up by Michel Lepeletier, Marquis de Saint-Fargeau. This plan provided that boys and girls, at the age of five, were to become boarders in 'National Education Institutions', where they would become inured to every kind of fatigue and

bent under the yoke of salutary discipline. They would all wear the same uniform, be given the same food and the same teaching, and would return home only after receiving a completely equalitarian training. Boys would remain in these establishments until the age of fifteen and girls until the age of eleven.

The Constitutions of '91 and '93 proclaimed the right to education and the duty of society to ensure that education was accessible to all citizens. Free and compulsory schooling was advocated. Chapter X of the Constitution of the Year III provided for the establishment of primary schools. The law of 23 Brumaire of the Year III advocated the establishment of a school for every thousand inhabitants and the training of teachers (teachers' training colleges). Under the decree of 3 Brumaire of the Year IV education was reorganized, but it was no longer to be free of charge and compulsory. Twenty-five per cent of the pupils could however be exempted from the payment of school fees on grounds of poverty.

Owing to the political instability of this period, no practical results were achieved. After a great deal of invention and planning, the Revolution had no time to carry out great reforms. Thus Chaptal declared in the Year VIII: 'Public education is hardly existent anywhere; the generation now reaching its twentieth year is irrevocably doomed to ignorance.' Yet the work done by the revolutionary Assemblies in the cause of education was by no means negligible. Those five years saw stated, expounded and studied all the problems that were later to be raised in the nineteenth century, in an effort to find a solution for them: freedom and monopoly, compulsory schooling without payment of fees, access to higher education, co-ordination of curricula, introduction of new teaching methods. All the seeds were sown; given favourable economic and political conditions, compulsory education would spring into life of its own accord.

The First Empire

Napoleon inherited the educational ideas of the Revolution. He thoroughly reorganized the university but paid little attention to primary education, which he left to the 'Ignorantine Friars'. Of the 109 articles of the decree of 17 March 1808 organizing the Imperial University, only three were concerned with primary education. A teachers' training college was opened in Strasbourg in 1810. During the Hundred Days, Carnot set up the 'Society for Elementary Education'.

The Restoration

The Bishops resumed a close supervision over education. In 1816, a qualifying certificate for primary teaching was instituted, but before long the Rector was conferring this certificate on all members of the congregation, without any examination. In principle, this certificate was only necessary for laymen, but the rule was not applied. 'Mutual schools' were established and increased in number until 1846. All grades took their lessons together, in large classrooms where several hundreds of pupils were assembled. Each section was taught by a monitor under the direction of a single master who was in charge of the whole school. There were soon almost 1,500 mutual schools. Paris, moreover, had twenty-eight free primary schools (including thirteen schools for girls), with 4,318 pupils. As a result of private initiative, free evening schools were inaugurated for adults. In some departments teachers' training colleges were set up, but they turned out very few teachers. Generally speaking, teachers fell into the following categories:

- (1) Teachers attached to an institution, as under the earlier régime; these were often artisans.
- (2) Disabled persons (with one arm, lame, etc.) who had learnt to read and write.
- (3) Itinerant or annual teachers (who received fifteen *écus* for three months' teaching).

By 1830, although the Government had done practically nothing in this direction since 1816, there was some improvement in school attendance because schools had been opened on private initiative.

The July Monarchy: Guizot's Law

Louis-Philippe surrounded himself with professors, who played a considerable part in public life. With the new development of industry in the country, it became necessary to train enlightened workers as fast as possible. The middle class, which was now in power, realized that the common people must be given some schooling. Under the July Monarchy important progress was made as regards primary education.

Guizot's Law (28 June 1833)

This was a very important landmark in public education in France. It made primary education a public service open to all. Each commune had to maintain an elementary primary school; each town with more than 6,000 inhabitants, a senior primary school; and each department, a primary teachers' training college. Educa-

tion was to be made free for pupils 'unable to pay any fees'. A Communal Committee was set up for each school, and a District Committee, presided over by the Sub-prefect, appointed the teachers. An Order in 1833 instituted a corps of primary school inspectors, at least one for each district. The lower certificate was again required of teachers, and the higher certificate was established. Expenditure was shared by the State, the departments and the communes. Thus, in a few years, Guizot set up the structure of primary education, as it exists today. It was not, of course, made compulsory, and education for girls was left to the congregations. But the Church reacted strongly against the reforms, and it is doubtful whether in view of the state of the social and political forces thus brought face to face, more could have been done at that time.

Statistics show the extent of the efforts made:

The budget for primary education rose from 500,000 francs in 1830 to 3,000,000 francs in 1847.

During the Monarchy, 32,000 schools were built.

Number of schools in 1830: 30,000 (20,000 boys' schools, 10,000 girls' schools).

Number of schools in 1848: 62,000 (43,000 boys' schools, 19,000 girls' schools).

In 1848 there were only 2,000 communes without a school, as against 13,984 in 1830.¹ The school population rose from 1,950,000 to 3,530,000 pupils (2,176,000 boys, 1,354,000 girls).

There were thirty-four teachers' training colleges in 1830, and seventy-two in 1847. Teachers had from that time to devote themselves exclusively to teaching. They received from the State, the department or the commune a fixed salary of 200 francs a year (400 francs if they had the higher certificate), and also the fees paid by the pupils. The quality of the teaching improved. Whereas in 1837, out of 326,298 young men called to the colours, forty-six per cent were illiterate, in 1847 the proportion of illiterates was only thirty-five per cent. During the eighteen years of the Monarchy (1830-1848) the proportion of illiterate men diminished by nineteen per cent. Thus the July Monarchy, taking advantage of the general prosperity and the considerable resources obtained through commerce and the newly developing industry, did great work for the advancement of primary education.

¹ Total number of communes at this period: 30,796.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

The Second Republic. Falloux's Law (15 March 1850)

This law chiefly affected secondary education and its main purpose was to weaken the spirit and independence of the universities so as to bring the latter under the control of the Church. The Bishop was a member of the committee which appointed the Rector. Apart from the establishment of primary education for girls, the law made no new contribution to the question we are considering. In 1851, there were still 800,000 children not attending any school. No noteworthy advance was made in primary education on the system established by Guizot's law.

The Second Empire. Duruy's Law (10 April 1867)

Duruy wanted education to be free and compulsory, but did not achieve either aim. The law of 10 April 1867 nevertheless played an important part in improving school attendance, through the help it gave to poor children. Under this law, history and geography were included among the subjects taught in elementary schools, and 10,000 popular libraries attached to the schools were set up. All budgetary restrictions were abolished and it was laid down that education should be free for all children whose families were unable to pay school fees. The communes were authorized to provide free education for all, provided they voted the necessary funds. In an attempt to remove the education of girls from the control of the congregations, the law of 1867 also made it compulsory for communes with 500 or more inhabitants to have at least one public school for girls.

FROM THE THIRD REPUBLIC ONWARDS

The Third Republic had an extremely difficult beginning; the republican régime was indeed only adopted by Parliament with a majority of one. Around 1880, political passions were rife and the dispute with regard to schools had become a symbol. Nor was it an easy matter to set up, as the Republicans desired, public schools that were free and at the same time acceptable to all.

The institution of free primary education for all the children in France required enormous funds. There were about four million children of school age (six to fourteen). If these were divided into classes of twenty-five there would be 160,000 classes, to be either maintained or newly formed, and provided with teachers. Placed side by side, these 160,000 classes would cover a distance of 2,000 kilometres (i.e. from Paris to Bucarest). Taking into account annexes,

classes, gardens and playgrounds, the primary schools in France, placed side by side, would cover about 6,000 kilometres (Paris to Teheran). Reckoning the cost at 10,000 francs (1880 value) per unit, the provision of schools for the education of French children required a capital of 1,600 millions, or 3,000 millions if the teachers' training colleges and teachers' lodgings were included. These 3,000 million francs were equivalent to half the annual revenue of the State in 1880, and to ten per cent of the total annual revenue of the nation.

One hundred and sixty thousand men and women teachers had to be provided. Reckoning the average salary at 800 francs per year, the salaries of primary teachers (including inspectors, teachers at the training colleges, etc.) entailed an annual expenditure of 150 millions. The strength of this teaching corps was equivalent to that of a large army with thirteen divisions. To maintain a corps of 160,000 teachers, changing every twenty-five years, 6,400 new teachers would have to be trained every year.

There were also philosophical and religious obstacles to be overcome. Besides the large number of Catholics, the population of France included Free-thinkers, Protestants, Jews and Moham-medans, in towns and villages throughout the country. Some Catholics passionately claimed complete control of the education of children. In their opinion, religion—their own religion—should permeate man's every act, and they refused to admit that there could be such a thing as 'secular' morality, that is, a morality which did not depend on the spiritual force of Catholicism. Some of these Catholics were also shocked that village boys and girls should be taught in the same classroom. The Free-thinkers and members of other religions disagreed with this intransigent attitude.

The French Conservatives—the Catholic Party and the Extreme Right—were also opposed to popular education organized by the State, and combined to prevent its coming into existence. The Republicans wanted schools to be free from control by the Church, whilst the Catholic Party wanted to maintain the old tradition. This party was becoming alarmed. Hitherto teachers had always been appointed, paid and supervised by the local authorities, and had therefore complied with their wishes in every respect; but what was to be expected from these new teachers, appointed by the State? They would obviously be propagandists of new ideas, zealous servants of the hated Republic.

When the political battle raging round the school problem was at its height, Victor Hugo addressed himself as follows to the priests:

'... I distrust you. Teaching means building . . . I have no confidence in your kind of building. I would not have you entrusted

with the education of children, the care of their souls, the development of young minds just awakening to life, the moulding of the spirit of coming generations; in fact, with the future of France.

'I would not have you entrusted with the future of France, for that would be to deliver it into your hands. It is not enough for new generations to succeed us; I, and others like me, want them to carry on our traditions.

'And so I will have no part in the alms doled out by you, whether material or spiritual. May the results of our fathers' labours be spared destruction at your hands; may that splendid achievement never know such shame.

'Against whom are your shafts directed? I will tell you. They are directed against human reason. Why? Because it reveals the truth.

'Shall I tell you the cause of your alarm? It is the flood of freely flowing light that has emanated from France for the last three centuries; a light whose substance is reason, a light that shines today more brightly than ever, through which France has become a beacon whose rays illumine all the peoples of the world.'¹

In reply to supporters of the Left who wanted education to be made compulsory for all children and, therefore, to have public schools set up, Senator Chesnelong, of the Right, said:

'You say that you want compulsory schooling throughout France, but this is only half your intention; your real aim is to give the whole population an anti-Christian education and thus to destroy Christian education. . . .

'That is why you demand compulsory schooling. And, in so doing, you make it clear that you have not the moral support of parents; you have to conquer their opposition by force.

'A demand for compulsory schooling is to be expected from a secularist, just as tyranny is to be expected from a usurper. . . . It is both the essence and the condemnation of your system.

'I maintain that if these plans are approved by the public authorities, if the rising generations in France are subjected for any length of time to the educational system you intend to impose on them, there will be an end to social stability and moral dignity in this country. . . .'²

The above passages give some idea of the political emotion aroused in France by the establishment of primary schools under State supervision. The Republicans attached fundamental importance to educational questions, for they considered compulsory schooling for all to be an essential preliminary as well as a natural consequence of universal suffrage. Elections were fought on the education question and the Republicans finally triumphed. Jules Ferry

¹ *Compte rendu des Séances du Sénat*, p. 919 IV.

² *Ibid.*, p. 324 III.

proclaimed the 'golden rule' for the education budget: one-sixth of the State's revenue should be allocated to national education for children. With Paul Bert and Ferdinand Buisson, he initiated a series of laws which are still in force today. Primary education in public schools was made *free for all* by the law of 16 June 1881.

As the funds required to institute compulsory schooling in France were beyond the resources of any non-governmental body, it was realized that a public service would have to be set up, to deal with national education. Having regard to financial organization in France, it was impossible to ask any small country town to build and maintain schools in all the hamlets dependent upon it and pay the teachers' salaries out of its own funds; the cost of education would even have been a drain on departmental budgets. It was therefore decided that the major proportion of expenditure on public primary schools should be borne by the State, although departments and communes should also pay their share. This new system met the desire of French Governments under whatever régime (Monarchy, Empire or Republic) for centralization with the same standard throughout the country. The State ordained that there should be public schools in every commune. Given the situation in 1880, it thus became necessary to build 17,320 schools, enlarge 5,458 and repair 8,381. From 1882 to 1900, a great deal of work was done, resulting in an increase of about 70,000 classrooms, and on 2 July 1882, that remarkable Minister of Education, Jules Ferry, was able to say jestingly:

'... My Ministry has turned into a regular factory for schools. It is building on an average three schools or classrooms a day. We are turning out schools as fast as the baker makes bread.'

New teachers' training colleges were set up, one for men and one for women in each department. These were at the same time cultural establishments and vocational training schools. Every year they turned out 4,000 excellent teachers holding the higher certificate.

For private schools, all teachers were required to hold the elementary certificate issued by the State.

Under the law of 28 March 1882, primary education was made secular and compulsory. Secularism was one of the basic principles of the new public school. There are two kinds of 'truths': revealed truths, which are essential to all religions and which, by their very nature, are outside the scope of human reason; and incontestable truths, accepted by all, which have been brought to light by the scientific reasoning of generations of scholars. With the aim of preventing any controversy in schools, and of training its future citizens to become members of the national community through education and the acquisition of a common cultural heritage, the

Republic decided that only scientific truths, which had been arrived at through human reasoning, should be taught in its schools. Hence the secular school in France; in setting up these schools where controversy was to find no place, the Third Republic was not only meeting the wishes of the Republican majority but also acting on the advice of enlightened Catholics who wished to see the country united and prosperous. For instance, Thiers said in 1850:

‘The teaching of children must be based essentially on truths . . . on truths that have been proved, that are established . . .’ So, in the public secular schools, all children—whether Jews, Catholics, Free-thinkers, Protestants or Mohammedans—could sit in the same classrooms, and learn under the same masters, in an atmosphere of peace and harmony, the wonders of the cultural heritage of all mankind.

In his famous letter of 17 November 1887, Jules Ferry defined as follows the duties of teachers in this respect: ¹

‘. . . The law of 28 March 1882 contains two provisions which are complementary but in no way contradictory: on the one hand, it excludes instruction in any dogma from the compulsory education curriculum; on the other, it gives prime importance to instruction in ethics and civics. Religion should be taught by the family and the Church; ethics by the school.

‘The purpose of the legislator was not, therefore, purely negative. His main object was doubtless to separate the school from the Church, ensure freedom of conscience for teachers and pupils alike, and make a distinction between two spheres that had for too long been merged: i.e. between beliefs, which are personal, free and variable, and knowledge, which is universally admitted to be the same for all men and necessary to all. But the law of 28 March goes further: it proposes the institution in France of national education, based on a concept of duties and rights which the legislator unhesitatingly includes among the fundamental truths that all should know.

‘The authorities have entrusted you, the teachers, with this supremely important aspect. Although you are not to give religious instruction, there is no question of your not teaching ethics; that would indeed deprive your profession of its high calling. On the contrary, the authorities have deemed it natural that teachers, whilst instructing children in reading and writing, should also acquaint them with those elementary ethical rules which are as universally accepted as the rules of language and arithmetic.

‘. . . Some may say that this task of ethical education is impossible

¹ *Bulletin de l'instruction publique*, Paris. I.XII.1887.

of fulfilment, others that it is trivial. But this is to over-estimate or under-estimate the object of your mission. Let me assure you that your task is neither beyond your powers nor unworthy of your esteem; it is very limited but of great importance, extremely simple but exceedingly difficult.

'I have said that your task as an educator in ethics is very limited. Strictly speaking, you will have to teach nothing new, nothing that is not already familiar to you, as to all right-thinking people. And when anyone talks to you about your mission, your apostolate, you must not be misled by these terms. You are not the apostle of a new gospel; the legislator had no idea of turning you into a philosopher or an impromptu theologian. He asks of you nothing that could not be asked of any man endowed with kindness and good sense. You cannot see this flock of children round you day after day, listening to your lessons, noticing how you behave, following your example, without wishing to take advantage of their docility and confidence to impart to them, besides regular school subjects, the principles of ethics—of those excellent and ancient ethics which have been handed down to us by our fathers and which we are proud to follow in our daily relations, without bothering to discuss their philosophic bases.

'Your function is to help—even in some respects to replace—the parent. You should therefore speak to that parent's child as you would like any responsible person to speak to your child: strongly and authoritatively in the case of an undisputed truth, a universally held precept of ethics; but with the greatest caution whenever there is a danger of touching upon some religious feeling, on which you are not competent to pronounce.

'If you are ever in doubt how far you should go in your teaching of ethics, the following is a practical rule to guide you. Whenever you recommend a moral precept or maxim to your pupils, think whether you know a single right-thinking man who might be hurt by what you are about to say. Think whether any father, listening to your lesson, might in all sincerity refuse to acquiesce in your statement. If so, do not make it. Otherwise, speak out boldly; for what you propose to pass on to the child is not your own wisdom but the wisdom of the human race; it is one of those universal ideas that have been incorporated, through centuries of civilization, in the heritage of mankind. However narrow the scope of this action may appear, make it a point of honour never to go beyond it; remain well within its bounds rather than run the risk of overstepping them. You can never be too careful in your approach to that delicate and sacred thing, the conscience of a child.'

Around 1880, a great many French Catholics were unwilling to accept the idea of a 'godless' school: parents should have their

children instructed in his own religion, in a special school in which all the teaching should be inspired by religious ideas. The attitude of the schools run by the State, however, was strictly impartial to the followers of all religions. It was decided that Thursday should be a school holiday, for parents to have their children receive instruction in their own religion. Proof of the complete philosophic impartiality of the State's secular schools was to be furnished later by the large number of priests, bishops and cardinals of our day who received their primary education in these schools.

About the same time, the historian Lavissee defined as follows the ideal of secularity in French public schools:

'Secularity does not limit human thought to the visible horizon, nor forbid man to aspire after God; it demands that man shall perform his duty towards this present life. It does not wish to shock, nor does it despise, the conscience of those who are still attached to ancient beliefs; it will not allow religions, which are ephemeral, the right to govern humanity, which is enduring.

'Secularity has no hatred of any particular Church nor of Churches in general; it is out to fight the spirit of hatred with which all religions are imbued and which has been the cause of so much violence, carnage and destruction.

'Secularity holds that life is worth living; enjoys life; declines to regard this world as a "vale of tears"; refuses to admit that tears are necessary and beneficent or that suffering is providential; will not resign itself to any form of human misery; fights against evil in the name of justice.

'There are three virtues inherent in secularity:

'Charity, i.e., love of one's fellow-men;

'Hope, i.e., the salutary feeling that the day will come when man's aspirations after justice, peace and happiness will be satisfied;

'Faith, i.e., the will to believe in the usefulness and ultimate triumph of perpetual striving.'

Thus public primary education was built upon the following rational foundations: *entirely free tuition, secularity, compulsoriness*. It developed vigorously in particularly favourable circumstances.

The Republic benefited from the great economic advances that had taken place in France since the beginning of the nineteenth century. Between 1800 and 1900 the population rose from twenty-eight to forty million. Owing to the use of new sources of energy (coal, water-power, oil), the worker who, at the beginning of the century, had 150 kilos of coal per year at his disposal, was able 100 years later, to command energy corresponding to four tons of coal per year. The development of colonial and international markets increased resources in raw materials tenfold. Technical equipment had greatly improved with the development of machinery.

Thus the output of a French worker in 1910 was seven times more than the output of his counterpart in 1840. These various factors led to a notable increase in France's economic power and a steady enrichment of the country as the century wore on. France's capital, calculated in francs of that period (the franc remained stable throughout the nineteenth century), increased regularly:

1789	38	milliards
1815	45	—
1871	175	—
1881	200	—
1908	287	—
1914	320	—

The same applied to the national revenue:

1789	4.025	millions
1849	6	milliards
1871	10	—
1877	25	—
1906	36	—

The economic and political crises of 1848 and 1871 were easily overcome.

The living conditions of workers improved simultaneously with the increase in national wealth. Taking the terminology used by Mr. Colin Clark,¹ who makes a distinction between primary activities (agriculture, forestry, fishing), secondary activities (industry, building), and tertiary activities (commerce, liberal professions, administration), we see the distribution of French workers between these three categories was: seventy, fifteen, fifteen, in 1800, and forty, thirty, thirty, in 1900.

Moreover, whereas about 1800 the average real income from the tertiary activities was equal to ten times that from the primary activities, about 1900 it was not more than three times the latter. Between these two dates there was a trend towards equalization of incomes and a relative increase in the number of better paid workers. At the same time, owing to technical improvements, the need for menial work rapidly diminished. The number of working hours dropped from 3,900 to 2,000 per annum, whilst the working week was reduced from sixty-five to forty hours. At the end of the nineteenth century, there was no longer any need to put children to work, either to help pay for the family's needs or to meet industrial requirements. Improvements in machinery freed the children, and also adults who could take up teaching. Modern society was thus put in possession of the means for providing education.

The State budget increased in step with the expansion of national

¹Colin Clark. *The Conditions of Economic Progress*. London: Macmillan, 1940.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

resources. It rose steadily from one milliard in 1815 to eight milliards in 1913; a public service for primary education could therefore be established between 1882 and 1890, without any serious financial difficulties. The increase in the number of public schools during the nineteenth century can be seen from the expansion of the budget for primary education (Ministry of Education).

	<i>Francs of the period</i>	<i>Equivalent in francs of today</i>
First Empire (1815)	4,250	1,275,000
Restoration (1825)	50,000	15,500,000
July Monarchy (1848)	3,000,000	930,000,000
Second Empire (1869)	12,000,000	3,720,000,000
Third Republic { (1876)	25,000,000	7,750,000,000
(1900)	160,000,000	50,000,000,000
(1936)	1,400,000,000	42,000,000,000
Fourth Republic (1949)	63,000,000,000	63,000,000,000

The increase in the budget of the Fourth Republic, in comparison with that of the Third Republic of 1936, is due to the addition, firstly, of educational expenditure for the departments of Alsace and Lorraine (previously borne by the Home Office) and, secondly of educational expenditure for the departments of the French Overseas Territories (previously borne by the Colonial Office).

The laws of 1881-1882 thus led to a 500 per cent increase in the budget for primary education. At the same time, the communes and departments made a contribution of almost one hundred million francs (the equivalent of thirty-one milliard francs today) to primary education. Such expenditure is only possible in times of financial prosperity, such as was then enjoyed by France.

It is to the credit of the Republican Government that it took advantage of favourable economic circumstances to establish free and compulsory primary education of a secular character.

CHAPTER TWO

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE: LEGAL PROVISIONS AND ENFORCEMENT

LEGAL PROVISIONS GOVERNING COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Compulsory school attendance was instituted by the law of 28 March 1882, subsequently amended by the laws of 11 August 1936 and 22 May 1946 (see Appendices.) Primary education is compulsory for children of both sexes from the age of six to the age of fourteen. Parents or guardians are held responsible for any infringement of the law. The parents' freedom of choice with regard to the form of instruction or the school attended is not affected. They may have the child enrolled in either a public or a private school, or may make a declaration that they intend to have him taught at home. Families living near several public schools may enrol their children in any one of those schools, whether or not it is within their own administrative district, provided that the roll is not already full.

ENFORCEMENT

The machinery for enforcement takes three forms: administrative supervision of enrolment and regularity of attendance; punishment of infringements by legal proceedings and cessation of family allowances; encouragement of school attendance.

Administrative Supervision of Enrolment and Attendance

Under the law of 1882, the mayor and the Municipal Education Committee were responsible for such supervision. In the two amending laws of 11 August 1936 and 22 May 1946, the Municipal Education Committee is omitted. The supervision of enrolments is now entirely in the hands of the mayor, who receives statements from the persons responsible for the child and issues certificates of registration on the school lists. The mayor is responsible for keeping these lists up to date, and all the children of the commune between the ages of six and fourteen must appear on them. The teachers in public and private schools are responsible for ensuring

that attendance is regular, keeping a register on which the absences of all enrolled pupils are shown. Any cases in which a child is not enrolled on the school lists or is repeatedly absent are reported by the mayor and the teachers to the Departmental Inspector. Moreover, any child of school age found by an agent of the public authorities in a public place, without satisfactory reason during school hours, must immediately be taken to school.

Punishment of Infringements

Though disciplinary measures were at first confined to legal proceedings, they are now also exercised through the system of family allowances.

Legal Proceedings. The penalties imposed have been steadily increased. The law of 1882, as amended by the laws of 11 August 1936 and 22 May 1946, makes provision for fining or, in the case of habitual offenders, imprisoning the parents; they may even be deprived of their parental rights. At the moment, a further Bill is down for consideration by the National Assembly, providing for still severer penalties.

Cessation of Family Allowances. The provision making the payment of family allowances dependent on satisfactory school attendance is, like family allowances themselves, a recent development. It is contained in Article 1 of the enactment known as Law No. 1038 of 18 November 1942. Two circulars, dated 12 February 1944 (Ministry of Education) and 28 December 1945 (Ministry of Agriculture) lay down that allowances shall be discontinued in respect of pupils who are absent without due reason more than a certain number of times. The same principle is reiterated in the law of 22 August 1946 (Article 10: 'Family allowances shall be payable as long as the child is subject to compulsory school attendance...'). The decree of 10 December 1946 setting out the administrative regulations for the application of this law lays down that: 'The right to the payment of benefits shall be subject to regular school attendance. The Ministers of Labour and Social Security, Finance, Agriculture, Education, and Population shall determine the conditions to be satisfied as a criterion of regular attendance and the procedure for supervising the attendance both of children of school age and of those continuing their studies beyond the school-leaving age.'

The inter-departmental circular No. 9955 of 22 April 1949 was issued under these provisions (see Appendices). In accordance with this document, the payment of family allowances is subject, in

respect of children of school age, to the submission of a certificate of enrolment in a school or of a certificate from the Departmental School Inspector stating that the child is receiving instruction at home. Regularity of attendance is checked by the headmasters or headmistresses, who send in lists of children whose attendance is unsatisfactory to the Family Allowance Offices at the end of each month. These Offices are obliged to refuse to pay family allowances to parents whose children have missed school, without due reason or proper excuse, for at least half a day on four occasions during the month.

Encouragement of School Attendance

Neither free schooling nor the threat of penalties is sufficient to secure wholly satisfactory school attendance, and our legislators realized at a very early stage that it was necessary, in the first place, to assist necessitous families. As early as 1849, a fund was raised on private initiative in Paris, in the third *arrondissement* or ward of the city; others soon followed suit. The results were so satisfactory that Victor Duruy, the then Minister of Education, was inspired to give the scheme legal ratification. This was the object of Article 15 of the Law of 10 April 1867: 'In any commune, the Municipal Council, with the approval of the Prefect, may resolve to establish a School Fund for the encouragement and promotion of school attendance by rewarding scholars whose attendance is regular and by assisting indigent pupils. . . .' The establishment of a school fund was made compulsory for all communes by the Law of 28 March 1882, Article 17: 'A School Fund, as provided for in Article 15 of the Law of 10 April 1867, shall be instituted in every commune. . . .' The activities of these school funds have developed very considerably and now include the award of prizes of all sorts, maintenance grants, the organization of canteens and holiday camps, the distribution of clothing and footwear, and the provision of free school supplies. Unfortunately, nearly half of the 38,000 French communes still have no school fund.

HOW FAR THE SYSTEM IS SATISFACTORY

Results Achieved

The *Société Française de Pédagogie* recently carried out a survey (1948) dealing, among other matters, with the application of the law concerning compulsory school attendance. The survey covered 15,235 out of the 67,734 public elementary schools in Metro-

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

politan France (excluding the Departments of the Seine, the Manche, and the Hautes-Alpes); the total roll of these schools was 1,277,000.

The schools were distributed as follows:

Rural centres.	8,407 schools with	385,787 pupils
Semi-rural centres	3,147 schools with	237,721 pupils
Urban centres	2,161 schools with	445,894 pupils
Industrial centres.	1,520 schools with	207,572 pupils
<hr/>		<hr/>
15,235 schools with		1,276,974 pupils

The survey produced some interesting details about children who are being educated at home and about those who are receiving no teaching at all.

Children educated at home: Rural centres, 551 for 840 schools; Semi-rural centres, 421 for 3,147 schools; Urban centres, 198 for 2,161 schools; Industrial centres, 138 for 1,520 schools; or: 1,308 out of 1,276,974 pupils, roughly one per thousand.

Children receiving no teaching: Rural centres, 540; Semi-rural centres, 334; Urban centres, 224; Industrial centres, 217; or: 1,315, roughly one per thousand.

Some of these children are crippled, deaf and dumb, blind, or mentally deficient. Many of them are young children (under nine) living at a distance from any school. There is no doubt, however, that these figures are if anything too low, as the replies received draw attention to the difficulty experienced by teachers in the towns in securing satisfactory information.

Teachers, when asked whether children were properly enrolled during the six months in which they reached the age of six, almost all answered in the affirmative. Generally speaking, the urban schools accept new pupils only once a year, on 1 October; children reaching the age of six during the year continue to attend a nursery school. Rural schools generally take in new pupils twice a year, at 1 October and at Easter. These schools often accept children of five or even of four, when there is competition from private schools, and children of three when they have an infants' class attached to them. Many teachers would probably prefer new pupils to be accepted only once a year, but this would be difficult. It may be taken that the problem of school enrolment is practically solved. This is largely due to the beneficial effects of the Law of 22 May 1946, which lays down that a certificate of enrolment shall be required for the payment of family allowances.

The obligation to attend a public or private school until the age of fourteen is usually accepted without demur, although many teachers ask that it should be limited to 15 July for children who reach the age of fourteen during the calendar year. It is, in fact,

difficult to induce pupils born in the last quarter of the year to go back to school in October. This problem is connected with that of the age for the award of the school-leaving certificate. The provision specifying that the child shall have reached the age of fourteen in the current year is really an additional means of compelling attendance at school in the final classes; 9,787 replies out of 15,218 are in favour of keeping this provision unchanged. Many teachers, however, ask that children shall be allowed to sit for the examination twice, at thirteen and at fourteen. It is also suggested that children who wish to attend technical training schools shall be granted exemption.

The Law of 22 May 1946 laid down that permission for absence up to a maximum of eight weeks a year might be granted to children over twelve employed on agricultural work or in sea fishing. It is impossible, from the particulars supplied in the answers to the questionnaires, to gain an exact idea of the extent to which advantage is taken of these facilities. There is no doubt that proper requests are not always submitted to the school authorities for the long leaves of absence, which are frequently taken during the summer in rural schools. Many parents do not know what the law is and, on this point, headmasters show little disposition to bring it to their notice. Sixty-four per cent of the replies are in favour of continuing this system of exemption, but it is generally thought that the permitted period should be shorter.

The Law of 22 May 1946 listed the various authorities who should co-operate in supervising school attendance. The part played by the municipal authorities, in particular, is rather important (preparation of lists of children of school age, reporting of truant children). Out of 5,230 replies, 2,696 state that the municipal authorities are fulfilling their duties very satisfactorily (forty-seven per cent), 2,467 report that they take little interest (51.6 per cent), and only sixty-seven mention hostility towards the school and deliberate failure to co-operate in securing proper school attendance (1.28 per cent). Many teachers mention the good work done by the *gendarmes*, the police (policewomen in Marseilles), school welfare workers and district school superintendents (*délégués cantonaux*).

The Law of 22 May 1946, which provides for the discontinuance of family allowances to certain habitual offenders, is supplemented by the Decree of 10 December 1946, setting out the administrative regulations for the application of the Law of 22 August 1946, and by the circular of 22 April 1949; certain Family Allowance Offices, however, did not wait until that circular was issued before discontinuing family allowances in serious cases of failure to attend school. The agricultural Family Allowance Offices were particularly asked to do so in a circular, dated 28 December 1945, from the

Minister of Agriculture. In the circumstances, the replies to the questionnaire dealing with the year 1947-1948 cannot supply full and comprehensive information. Out of a total of 1,276,974 pupils, 1,440 cases, or 0.11 per cent, had the family allowances discontinued. Incidentally, all the teachers say that this is an effective measure, being applied as soon as a child has missed four half-day's schooling, in any month without due reason, and they ask that it should be retained. Although this measure is not applied to families with only one child, it is a very effective weapon because it can be brought into use without delay. Its application has given rise to some protests, from family welfare associations in particular, and some Family Allowance Offices have shown no great readiness to co-operate.

With a total of 1,276,974 pupils, 9,640 warnings have been sent out in accordance with the provisions of the Law of 22 May 1946, representing about 0.75 per cent. This small percentage of cases of deliberate failure to comply with the law shows that, generally speaking, the problem of school attendance is very near solution. Of these 9,640 cases, only 1,278 have been the subject of legal proceedings, or approximately one in a thousand. In some of these cases, a summons to the parents to appear before the magistrate has proved sufficient to secure the regular attendance of the children at school. Teachers express regret that the penalties—almost always quite small fines—are sometimes exacted in a very leisurely manner, which is a great drawback in securing attendance at school by children in their last year of study. Some of them complain that they are not informed of the imposition of these penalties.

Lastly, certain other difficulties in enforcing the provisions concerning school attendance should be mentioned. The excuses given by families are not always correct, and it is very difficult, especially in the country, to exercise any effective supervision in the absence of an adequate staff of school welfare workers. Certain cases are reported of abuse in the granting of medical certificates too easily. It is impossible to get excuses for absence from some parents of foreign origin who are unable to write French. These, however, are minor difficulties. The great difficulty is the competition from private schools. When they have to deal with a case in which a request for the discontinuance of family allowances should be submitted, or in which the penalties provided in the law governing compulsory school attendance should be applied, teachers often hesitate to report a pupil when there is a private school in the same commune. Families threatened with disciplinary measures tend to enrol their children in private schools, which are reputed to be less strict and which, in fact, almost always are so.

All in all, the Law of 22 May 1946 and the provisions concerning the discontinuance of family allowances mark a step forward and

have made it possible to secure a substantial improvement in school attendance. Fifty-five per cent of the teachers consider it unnecessary to change the law regarding compulsory education; all that is required is that it should be firmly enforced, that necessary legal proceedings should be instituted without hesitation, and that they should be conducted reasonably quickly. A few teachers ask for minor amendments and for increased penalties. A scheme is to be worked out by the services of the Ministry of Education which should satisfy them.

The investigations dealt also, however, with actual school attendance. The figures for absenteeism for 1947-48 were: rural centres, 7.77 per cent; semi-rural centres, 8.12 per cent; urban centres, 7.38 per cent; industrial centres, 9.97 per cent.

The figure of absenteeism for the whole of the schools is very nearly eight per cent. This percentage is substantially the same as that given by the School Inspectors in their annual report. It is interesting to see that attendance is less satisfactory in industrial centres than in non-industrial towns or even in the country, where the employment of children on agricultural work is, however, often responsible for bad attendance at school in June, July and October. The main cause of absence is illness (seventy per cent). This is a more serious matter in urban (seventy-four per cent) and industrial (seventy-two per cent) centres than in rural centres (sixty-four per cent). Of the cases of absence 7.7 per cent are due to interrupted communications and to bad weather. It should be added that the regions where school attendance is best are to be found in the east of France and in the departments of Normandy and Brittany. The figure for absenteeism is under five per cent in the Departments of the Moselle, Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin (disciplined habits of the population, absence of competition from other schools), and under six per cent in the Vosges, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Meuse. It is about six per cent in the Eure, Eure-et-Loir, Mayenne and Finistère. The departments where school attendance is worst are in the south-east (Bouches-du-Rhône, Var, and Alpes-Maritimes—approximately ten per cent).

Absence is most frequent in the second term (due to sickness, snowing up and bad weather). The first term is decidedly the best with regard to school attendance (the children being in good health after the holidays). In the third term, absence is fairly frequent (for agricultural work, preparation for first communion, religious ceremonies, and frequent absence after the school-leaving examination).

Analysis of the figures of absence for different days is rather interesting: Monday, 3,987; Tuesday, 276; Wednesday, 371; Friday, 504; Saturday, 3,627. Absence on Monday is due to Sunday

social life (tiredness in the child and in the mother, digestive upsets); on Saturday to the holding of markets in nearby towns or to the running of bus services for the day when the hairdresser, doctor, dentist, etc. come, and above all to the free Saturday afternoon, which makes it possible for families to arrange little outings together. Absence is most frequent in the elementary classes (children between seven and nine or ten) and especially in the preparatory classes (age six to seven), the latter including, in rural schools, a fairly high proportion of children under six. The percentages of children present (most absences being noted in the preparatory and elementary classes) are as follows: rural centres, 83.3 per cent; semi-rural centres, 98.8 per cent; urban centres, 94.8 per cent; industrial centres, 91.3 per cent.

There is no doubt that young children are most liable to sickness, that they are more likely to be kept away by difficulties of communication and by bad weather, and lastly that the families think it more important for children to attend school regularly in the classes working for some examination.

The following points are to be noted:

Waifs and strays or orphans in the care of families are at least as regular in their attendance at school as children with a normal family life, and they are quite often even better. It is clear that the supervision exercised by the Children's Welfare Officers (*Inspecteurs de l'assistance à l'enfance*) has an effect.

The influence of family environment is vital with regard to school attendance. Some families, particularly some of the poorest, use their children for various types of work. At every level of society, weakness or indulgence on the part of parents, or family discord, may lead to absence. On the other hand, it is to be noted that in urban centres, whenever the school canteen can provide a midday meal, children whose parents are out all day are very good in their attendance.

Truancy is on the wane. This is to be attributed to the good effects of more careful supervision by the various authorities responsible for ensuring that children attend school and, in particular, of the reform of educational methods, which are now better adapted to the natural tastes of children.

The number of children involved in legal proceedings is higher in the towns than in the country. There are very few delinquents in rural centres.

The requirement that children should be enrolled at a school before family allowances are paid (laid down in the Law of 22 May 1946) has led to an improvement in school attendance. This measure, has, in particular, compelled itinerant hawkers and showmen and gypsies to enrol their children. But, while the children of itinerant

hawkers and showmen attend school fairly satisfactorily, the gypsy children do not, and often remain illiterate.

The percentage of children belonging to families of foreigners is probably about: 2.83 per cent for rural centres; three per cent for semi-rural centres; 2.95 per cent for urban centres; 6.73 per cent for industrial centres.

These figures probably err on the side of caution. The attendance of these children at school is less satisfactory than that of other groups. In their case, they have to act as interpreters for their parents and to do many errands for them, in addition to the more usual reasons for absence.

Possible Improvements

Even if the legal provisions and regulations were very strictly enforced, they would not be sufficient to do away with all the difficulties encountered in connexion with school attendance. The causes of absenteeism must be precisely determined before remedies can be considered. The main reason given for absence is that the child is ill. This excuse may cover laziness on the part of the child or weakness on the part of the parents, and it is therefore necessary to proceed, simultaneously, with the education of certain families and with the tightening up of the machinery for supervision (insisting, for instance, on the submission of a medical certificate for any case of absence lasting more than two days). Social workers and school welfare workers can render important services in this respect. There is no doubt, however, that illness and physical deficiencies are still the main cause of bad attendance. Anything done to combat slum conditions and to develop habits of hygiene and cleanliness in families will indirectly promote regular attendance at school and the progress of education. The part played by the social welfare services in this respect may be extremely important, and the school itself may be regarded as a social service in the fullest sense, by reason of the education it provides.

Another very important question is that of feeding and nutrition. From this point of view, the school meals service is doing invaluable work, when the parents are out all day, when families are in very poor circumstances, or when the school is at a distance from the home. Lastly, thorough and regular school medical examinations may lead to a substantial improvement in the health of the school children, and make it possible, where necessary, to send them in good time to suitable establishments such as open-air schools, fresh-air homes, preventoria, etc. The newly-developed school and university health services have already done much valuable work.

Mention should also be made of sensory, motor, or mental defects, and of abnormalities of character, among the reasons for bad school attendance. There are, of course, already special schools and classes for blind children, those with bad sight, the deaf and dumb, mental defectives and 'maladjusted' children. But there are not enough of these schools. (See 'Special Cases' below).

Many children, moreover, suffer from the conditions in which their families live. Some of the children belonging to poor families have no suitable clothes or shoes to wear to school, or cannot buy the books they need. The remedy is to give the families really effective help. In this respect, the organization for the care of 'wards of the public school', which has a branch in every department, is doing much good work by organizing the distribution of clothing, regular assistance, and scholarships and prizes for school attendance. Mention should also be made of the activities of many municipal authorities which now furnish school supplies at the commune's expense, of the school funds, of parents' associations, and of school co-operatives. A network of charitable organizations has grown up around the schools, ready to assist necessitous children and thus make it easier for them to attend school. Such work should be further developed.

Some children are also put to work by their families, mainly on agricultural work such as: treating vines with copper sulphate, grape-gathering, ploughing, sowing, harvesting, threshing, hay-making, fruit-gathering, vegetable-gathering, picking jasmine, orange-blossom and medicinal plants in certain regions, looking after flocks and herds, seaweed gathering, oyster dredging and oyster breeding. They may, however, also be employed on various other jobs profitable to the family: looking after little brothers or sisters, housework when the mother is ill or away, helping with certain crafts (tin-smith's and glazier's work), picking and selling strawberries and lilies-of-the-valley (Seine and Seine-et-Oise), selling peanuts and ices, working (where elder girls are concerned) as maids or, in the case of older boys, in casinos or big hotels at watering places or holiday resorts. It is, of course, sometimes necessary for children to help with certain seasonal jobs, but obviously leave of absence should be kept to the minimum.

It seems necessary to use the means of enforcement available both against the people responsible for the child and against certain employers. There is all the less reason for hesitation as most families now receive family allowances. In this respect again, however, families need education. Some of them require temporary help; family welfare organizations which send young women to help in homes upset by the mother's illness or by the birth of a new baby should be encouraged and developed further.

Lastly, some children are unable to attend school regularly because of their parents' occupation. This applies to the children of itinerant traders and showmen, bargees and basket-makers. (See 'Special Cases' below).

Some cases of absence are attributable to various family and social reasons. Special mention is made of travel, particularly on Saturdays (when the parents stop work at midday, or wish to take advantage of the travelling facilities granted to employees of the State railway company), family celebrations and festivals, visits to town, social events (conferences, strikes, electoral campaigns, putting to sea of fishing boats, etc.), religious ceremonies and devotions, religious instruction. In cases where the parents take no interest or are exceptionally weak about making the children go to school—two quite important reasons for absenteeism—use has to be made of the penalties provided for by the law, which should then be rigorously applied. It would, however, be wrong to overlook the education of the parents themselves. Teachers can exercise a useful influence over the families by interesting them in the life of the school, particularly by arranging exhibitions of pupils' work and by school functions, by getting them together in parent-teacher associations, etc., by telling them exactly what are the legal provisions and regulations concerning school attendance, and by showing them where the real interests of their children lie.

Lastly, the material organization of the school and its educational methods should not be neglected. If the children are to enjoy school, all our schools should be well fitted up, bright, sunny, healthy and cheerful. The work of reconstruction and school building will have to go on for many years. Too many municipal authorities do not do all they should to maintain school buildings. Absence may sometimes be due to the fact that there is no heating. In some cases, the school co-operatives are trying to make up for the failings of the authorities or for the absence of money in the communal treasury. By appealing to school associations or associations of old pupils, clever teachers are managing to obtain teaching materials for joint use, and even to get simple work done to improve the equipment and decoration of the classrooms.

Finally, the educational organization of the school affects the regularity of attendance. Classes which are too large, the one-teacher school in the country districts, in which it is not always possible to organize satisfactory teaching, the frequent changing of teachers in certain posts with little to recommend them, the absence of teachers on sick leave, examination periods with the consequent dislocation of class life (teachers summoned to attend examinations, children leaving school when they have been awarded their leaving certificate)—all militate against regular school attendance. In

certain departments, it is no doubt possible to postpone the date of the school-leaving certificate examinations; but even then it must be remembered that primary school inspectors, who are generally the chairmen of the examining boards, have afterwards to take part in other examinations or competitions. The remedy for the other causes mentioned comes down to a question of funds (establishment of new posts, replacement of teachers on holiday). The question of arranging for children to be picked up and taken every day to schools serving several communes is being considered. Moreover, everything done to improve the professional training of teachers will have a valuable effect on school attendance. It is unnecessary to emphasize that very good teachers, whose authority is accepted without question and whose teaching is properly adapted to the needs and tastes of the children, find the problem of school attendance easy to solve.

SPECIAL CASES ARISING AS A RESULT OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Alsace-Lorraine

Compulsory school attendance was introduced in local legislation by Article 1 of the Order issued by the Governor-General of Alsace-Lorraine on 18 April 1871. After 1918, the local legislation was kept in force, the Law of 1882 was not made applicable to the three departments recovered from Germany, and the Decree of 25 November 1919 expressly excludes the introduction of the penal provisions in connexion with education (Article 1). The Decrees of 10 October 1936 and 21 December 1937, however, brought the provisions governing school attendance in Alsace-Lorraine closer to those of the 'interior' of France.

In these three departments, attendance at school is more regular than anywhere else in France. The average daily attendance for the whole group is ninety-five per cent of the pupils enrolled. A slight decline, reported by the primary school inspectors, is due to a certain laxity in the enforcement of the Order of 18 April 1871, and of the instructions for its application, dated 16 August and 9 and 30 September 1871, which are still in force. The provisions were, from the beginning, applied with some flexibility, particularly with regard to the granting of exemption from religious instruction and the dates for the admission and discharge of pupils.

Children are admitted to school at the beginning of the October term when they have reached the age of six in the course of the year. Girls of thirteen and boys of fourteen leave school at the

summer holidays, after sitting for the school-leaving examination. If a child is absent without due reason, the following penalties may be imposed upon the child's legal representatives: formal warning, a fine, and in the case of habitual offenders, up to a week's imprisonment. Thanks to the habits acquired in the last fifty years, however, attendance is good without the need for legal intervention. There has been a very interesting local development in the Department of Bas-Rhin. Instruction after leaving school has been made compulsory for adults who attained their majority during the German occupation (1940-1945). The necessary funds for running these post-school courses have been supplied by the State and the departmental authorities.

Other Special Cases

As the State has established free, secular, public schools in every town, village and hamlet in France, there is no difficulty in providing compulsory education for all normal children between the ages of six and fourteen. Certain types of children, however, who are also obliged to attend school, since the provisions apply to all without exception, cannot go to ordinary schools. Those who made the laws of 1882 and 1886 did not consider the full scale of the problems raised by children who are unsuited to ordinary school conditions (necessity of dealing with the most urgent tasks of education, lack of information, failure to realize the educational and social problems involved, which had never been properly stated or studied, general tendency to leave private initiative to provide for the education of maladjusted or handicapped children). Concern for handicapped children appears for the first time in Article 4 of the Law of 28 March 1882 dealing with compulsory schooling ('Regulations shall be made to determine the means of providing primary instruction for deaf and dumb and blind children'), and in Article 43 of the Law of 30 October 1886, which refers, in connexion with the declaration of opening, to: 'Schools opened in hospitals, charitable institutions, agricultural camps, charity workrooms, orphanages, reformatories, rescue homes, or other similar establishments administered by private persons'.

The Law of 1909 (see Appendix) marks a great step forward with regard to handicapped children. This law provides for the establishment of 'adjustment' classes and schools by the Directorate of public primary education, at the request of communes and departments.

This law is, however, manifestly inadequate:

It lays no obligation on communes and departments to establish special classes or schools;

It deals solely with backward or possibly maladjusted children;
It provides for keeping the children until the age of sixteen, but the age-limit needs to be extended if handicapped children are to be given suitable vocational training;

It does not apply to private schools, supervision over which is still unsatisfactory.

The special categories of children may be classified, with numbers, on the basis of a recent report made by Deputy Gallet (4 November 1949) on behalf of the Committee on the Family, Population and Public Health, as follows:

Normal Children: children of gipsies, 5,000 to 30,000; children of bargees, 7,500.

Normal children suffering from physical deficiencies: Slight deficiencies, 100,000; Tubercular, 100,000; Paralysed and crippled, 1,000; Epileptic, 10,000; Blind, 2,000; Deaf and dumb, 3,700.

Normal but delinquent children: 1,900.

Children exposed to moral danger: 300,000.

Mentally deficient children: 100,000.

There are, in all, probably more than 600,000 children of school age in need of special schools.

Three Ministries are jointly responsible for helping these children; the Ministries of Education, Health and Population, and Justice.

A substantial amount of work is done by private bodies.

Normal Children

Children of Gipsies. According to the Services of the Ministry of the Interior, there is no means of ascertaining their exact number, which is probably somewhere between 5,000 and 30,000.

They find it difficult to adapt themselves to modern life: in the present-day world social relationships are more and more important, but these people have a natural tendency to evade any form of social control imposed by people not of their own race; secondly, there is no place in modern life for idleness and individual fancy, and they are casual and indolent. Their means of livelihood, derived from various trades and crafts carried on more or less regularly, are generally precarious; they have a strong sense of the unity of the family and great numbers of children, and they make shift as they may without regard to the interests of people not of their race, whom they despise. The settled population (in the towns and above all in the countryside), distrust them because of the shifts to which they resort and try to keep them away; when, on occasion, they make them welcome, it is often because they are afraid of reprisals. The only mention of them in legislation is in the application of the

police law of 16 July 1912, and the central Government Departments take no cognizance of them; local authorities try to move them off land for which they are responsible, and tend not to regard people who will be gone tomorrow as under their administration. These people, some of whom have settled down or are showing a tendency to do so, lead a miserable life; during the war, in the spring of 1940, they were allotted compulsory places of residence; many of them were sent to concentration camps or deported to Germany; the Germans pursued a policy of extermination of these people similar to their policy for the Jews; many of them were burnt or sterilized. Most of these wandering people are French. It may be noted that young gipsies are quite willing to do their military service and regularly present themselves before the Recruiting Boards. It would therefore seem possible to secure observance of the law regarding compulsory schooling, provided that these gipsies are offered schools suited to their needs. The main problem arises in the Departments of the Seine and Bouches-du-Rhône. An Inter-Departmental Committee was set up in 1949 to consider and define a social relief policy designed to help the gipsies to find a niche in the life of France.

In some departments, special classes, attended by a few hundred children, have been instituted by the Directorate of Primary Education in the Ministry of Education.

The main difficulty is due to the fact that these children differ widely in origin (Catalans, Arabs) and often know no French. The family is generally a particularly unfortunate influence in their upbringing. In most cases it is impossible, for reasons of hygiene as well as for moral reasons, to allow these gipsy children to mix with others.

From the enquiries which have been made, it seems that the educational policy adopted should be on the following lines:

- (1) Not only special classes but special schools (some with boarding accommodation) should be set up. They should have complete sanitary equipment, a cloakroom, a canteen and a rest room. On arrival at school, the children would have a thorough wash and put on clean clothes.
- (2) These schools should have a special staff of women to deal with delousing and the supervision of showers, etc.
- (3) A specialized staff of teachers prepared to devote particular care to the children should be chosen.
- (4) The teaching methods should be based almost entirely on those of the 'activity school'.

In some cases, there should be no hesitation about removing these children from their parents and sending them to boarding schools.

Children of Bargees: By a decree of 17 June 1938, the necessary resources were provided for financing the building and running of boarding schools for the children of bargees. This decree instituted a tax of a certain sum per ton-kilometre on all goods carried by water, the proceeds being used to provide scholarships for bargees' children. A decision of the Council of Ministers, dated 31 December 1938, fixed the State grant for the building of schools, with boarding accommodation, for the children of watermen, at a maximum of ninety per cent. The State pays the teachers' salaries. The departments maintain the buildings and take a share in the cost of erecting the schools.

Schemes completed and under consideration: about 300 children regularly attend school. A boarding school is running at Conflans-Saint Honorine (Seine-et-Oise), accommodating boys and girls. Another has been at work in Lille since 1948, financed jointly by the State and by the department. There are plans for others at Saint-Mammès (Seine-et-Marne) and Rouen (Seine-Inférieure).

Normal Children Suffering from Physical Deficiencies

Delicate Health. The public education authorities have about 150 open-air schools for these children. The teachers must hold a special certificate for work in open-air schools (decree of 18 July 1939). These schools were introduced to allow children of school age who are in delicate health to pursue their education under the conditions most suitable for their health. The actual teaching is therefore strictly governed by proper medical prescription. The syllabus is the same as that of primary or nursery schools, but the time spent in class is reduced.

There are open-air schools in the suburbs of the large towns (e.g. at Suresnes), at the seaside, in the country, and in the mountains.

Form of Organization. Boarding schools, semi-boarding schools or seasonal schools.

Children requiring such treatment are reported by district nurses, school doctors or health clinics.

Some semi-private associations (with State grants) also have open-air schools. The children's villages in the area of the Rhône and the Alps, for instance, take in children from the towns who have symptoms of childish ailments. They stay for three to six months. They are divided into groups of about thirty in a house run by a married couple, both of whom are teachers (and who are responsible for practical management, school teaching and moral training).

There are, lastly, about a hundred private open-air schools scattered all over France.

Education in Sanatoria and Preventoria. A recent survey (21 January 1947) carried out in sixty-one departments, shows that out of 113 sanatoria: forty-five have no arrangements for teaching; twenty-nine have a rudimentary teaching organization; thirty-nine are properly organized in this respect; while out of 167 preventoria and fresh-air homes: sixteen have no educational organization; twenty-four have rudimentary arrangements, and 127 are properly organized.

Children in sanatoria are thus missing the compulsory schooling laid down by law.

The teaching staff of these establishments are often recruited from former patients.

Ninety-seven establishments are run with teachers employed by the State, so that they have a proper primary school of their own and fifty-one establishments are run as private schools.

The status of teachers in health establishments needs to be settled, as bold educational experiments are undertaken in them. The situation has improved since 1947; most of the children in sanatoria or preventoria are now able to receive primary education.

A recent decree, dated 6 January 1950, stipulates moreover:

'Article 6. In health establishments where children subject to compulsory school attendance are accommodated, their education shall be organized in consultation with the academic authorities, in accordance with a syllabus adapted to the state of health of the various categories of children admitted to the establishment in question.'

Paralysed and Crippled Children. The municipality of Paris has five classes for paralytic children in two different schools. There have been three classes—one an adjustment class—with a total of forty-two pupils, running at the girls' school in the avenue de la Porte d'Ivry (13^e) since 1 October 1947. Two other classes were begun in October 1948 at the boys' school, 2 rue de la Guadeloupe (18^e), attended by some thirty children.

The children are picked up by bus. The cost of this service, which will amount to about 3,218,000 francs for the current year, is borne entirely by the municipality. Bordeaux also has a special school of the same type.

Epileptics. Professor Heuyer estimates that there are 10,000 epileptic children who cannot attend ordinary schools.

The public education authorities have two classes for epileptics, which were established at Bry-sur-Marne (Seine) in 1949. In the other departments there is no provision for such children.

A scheme is, however, now under consideration. Any new organization should be based on two principles:

'It should be designed for the service of epileptics only, and should satisfy the requirements of all epileptics, with their manifold forms of neuro-psychopathology, from the point of view of both treatment and vocational training.' (L. Michaux.)

Blind Children. The number of blind children is steadily falling as a result of the improvement in ante-natal and post-natal care. Various documents, foreshadowed by the law of 28 March 1882, govern the organization of public education for children blind from birth; in practice, there are adequate educational arrangements for the blind. Apart from the National Institute for the Blind, most blind children are sent to establishments run by the departments. Eight hundred blind children are in private institutions. They are taught by teachers who may themselves be blind or who may see. Obviously, the teaching methods used are highly specialized. Vocational training generally begins during primary education.

Deaf and Dumb Children: The National Institute for the Deaf and Dumb at present contains 393 boys and 294 girls. The National Education Department has deaf-and-dumb classes in the large towns, with an enrolment of 682 boys and girls. Teachers are generally trained at the National Institute. There are 1,157 boys and 1,140 girls being educated in private establishments.

Delinquent Children. These children come under the control of the Ministry of Justice. The Education Department provides specialized teachers. Seventy per cent of juvenile delinquents come from the towns. Out of 1,891 delinquent children taken into the public institutions of the Ministry of Justice during 1949: 500 were sent to observation centres; 1,391 went to public 'approved schools'.

There are 151 private approved schools, fifty-three for boys and ninety-eight for girls. There are in addition two approved homes for boys and one for girls, where they are allowed a measure of freedom.

Great efforts to reform the teaching system in approved schools have been made since 1945. Schools based on an entirely new conception have been established. Good results have been secured in the social rehabilitation of children. There is also an appreciable decline in juvenile delinquency, which had manifestly increased, owing to the war, between 1939 and 1945.

Children exposed to moral danger

These children come under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Health and Population. The weapons at present provided by

the law are not very effective. The following table shows the position with regard to children receiving assistance at 31 December 1949:

Wards (under guardianship)	92,158
Boarded-out children (not under guardianship, but boarded out by the Child Welfare Department).	13,245
Children temporarily accommodated in homes	19,495
Total.	124,898
Children in receipt of assistance (to prevent their being neglected).	66,412
Children under supervision (in rehabilitation homes—Law of 1898, removed from the control of their parents)	31,317
Grand Total	222,627

Wards of school age: 37,654

Mentally Deficient Children

These children may be sub-divided into:

Ineducable: lunatics, idiots, dangerous, depraved, incurable.

These children are the responsibility of the asylums (law of 18 June 1938), attached to the psychiatric hospitals (Ministry of Public Health).

Semi-educable: imbeciles, children with serious defects of character, 'problem' or vicious children.

These children are brought up in various institutions, generally run by the departments, and known, according to type, as adjustment homes, reform schools, moral protection schools, public approved schools.

Educable: seriously defective mentally, slightly defective mentally, subnormal, maladjusted (unbalanced and emotional).

These children come under the Ministry of Education, which has established for their care observation centres, adjustment classes and schools.

The teachers take specialized training at a six months' course at the Special Teachers' Training College at Beaumont-sur-Oise. Thereafter, they must qualify for the *Certificat d'aptitude aux écoles de perfectionnement* (C.A.E.P.A.).

In conclusion, there is still much to be done for the education of handicapped children. Several Bills are under consideration, designed to ensure that in the near future every child may be able to attend a school suited to his needs.

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENT POSITION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

There are more than five million pupils in primary schools in France at the present time. Attendance has spread spontaneously beyond the compulsory school age of six to fourteen years. Nursery schools—kindergartens—take children from two to six years; those over fourteen years of age can attend complementary courses or secondary or technical schools.

A very complete network of 84,000 primary schools covers the entire country, employing 188,000 men and women teachers (see Appendix). Primary education is given in both public and private schools.

PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS

There are at present 73,616 public primary schools, 158,603 teachers and 4,222,732 pupils representing eighty-two per cent of the school-age population.

Thus the majority of French children attend public schools. The success achieved by public education can be attributed to the care taken by its founders to observe two fundamental principles: free schooling and secularity.

ENFORCEMENT OF PRINCIPLES

Free Schooling

According to Article I of the Law of 16 June 1881: 'School fees shall no longer be payable in public primary schools, nor in the classrooms of public schools. Fees for boarding in training colleges shall be abolished.'

Primary education costs are borne jointly by the State, the departments and the communes. Further, various benevolent societies connected with schools and post-school training, help children financially to attend the public schools.

Expenditure by the State. The State pays the salaries of members of the teaching profession (teachers, inspectors, school administrative staff).

The Government grants scholarships to pupils, and subsidizes school buildings and associations connected with schools and post-school training.

State expenditure on primary education, amounting to 87,503 millions in 1949, represents 7.8 per cent of the general budget.¹

Expenditure in 1950 was divided as follows:

Inspectoratès (salaries—cost of tours): General, 27 millions; Departmental, 118 millions; Primary, 291 millions. Total: 436 millions—0.5 per cent of the total budget (fifteen to eighteen per cent of the sums given here represent the cost of tours).

Administration: Central, 200 millions; Departmental, 291 millions. Total: 491 millions—0.5 per cent of the total budget.

Training Colleges: salaries of principals and teachers, 1,038 millions; salaries of bursars, agents, employees, management costs, 417 millions; salaries and scholarships for students, 1,937 millions; salaries (5,400 students), 1,166 millions; scholarships (12,055 students), 771 millions; teaching material and costs, 222 millions; building-repairs, 654 millions. Total: 4,268 millions—4.8 per cent of the total budget.

Primary Education Proper: teachers' salaries, 71,650 millions; cost of running schools, 505 millions; scholarships for pupils, 181 millions; buildings, 9,500 millions. Total: 81,836 millions—93.6 per cent of the total budget.

Education of Handicapped Children: staff, 80 millions; scholarships, 120 millions; buildings, 104 millions. Total: 304 millions—0.3 per cent of the total budget.

The major part (eighty-four per cent) of the State's budget for primary education is thus spent on the remuneration of staff: inspectors and teachers.

Although the Government does not, except in the case of its own agents, directly finance family allowances, the latter owe their origin to the idea of national solidarity. The legislators who stipulated, in Article 10 of the Law of 22 August 1946, that 'family allowances must be paid as long as schooling is compulsory...', recognized the financial burden imposed on families in sending their children to school and showed a desire to help them in accomplishing their task.

Finally, the State grants scholarships to pupils in public primary schools. Children living far from the school may receive a direct State grant called a 'maintenance grant'. According to the individual

¹ In 1949, twelve per cent of the general budget was allocated to the Ministry of Education.

cases considered, the annual grant may amount to: 9,720 frs., ($\frac{6}{6}$ ths); 8,100 frs., ($\frac{5}{6}$ ths); 6,400 frs., ($\frac{2}{3}$ rds); 4,860 frs., ($\frac{1}{2}$).

The State may also allocate subventions to municipalities or school funds to enable pupils from distant villages to be transported by road.

National scholarships may further be allocated to pupils following complementary courses. Scholarships may be for boarders (30 to 40,000 frs. per annum), day-boarders (10 to 15,000 frs. per annum), pupils living out under supervision, or maintenance (4,860 to 9,720 frs.).

As a rule, training colleges take only boarders. In exceptional cases they may admit day-boarders or out-students. No fees are payable for boarding. For each student, the Government makes an annual maintenance grant of 70,000 frs., which is incorporated in the college's budget. A fraction of the grant is paid to students. The lodging expenses of out-students are borne by the department. Student-teachers undergoing vocational training are considered as civil servant trainees; they have a salary, from which the training college deducts maintenance expenses, and a provident fund which is reimbursed to them at the end of their training, to tide them over the installation period. Any student-teacher holding a scholarship, who leaves the college or is expelled from it, or any former student-teacher holding a scholarship, who breaks the ten-year engagement or who is unable to carry it out, either because he has been pronounced professionally incapable by the Departmental Inspector before he graduates, or because a disciplinary measure has been taken against him, is required to reimburse the amount of the scholarship or salary which he has received.

The sum to be reimbursed covers only food, laundry, standard equipment, the clothing grant and, in some cases, the cost of outside lodgings.

Municipalities and departments may be granted subventions for the acquisition, building, rebuilding or enlargement of their primary schools.

Expenditure by Departments. Departments are financially responsible for the building and maintenance of training colleges (heating, lighting, etc.), and also the lodging and office expenses of Departmental Inspectors. Departments also subsidize various voluntary work connected with the colleges.

Expenditure by Communes. Communes are financially responsible for the building and maintenance of primary schools (heating, lighting, cleaning, furniture); they often supply pupils with school equipment free of charge. Lastly, they subsidize voluntary works connected with the schools.

Voluntary Associations Auxiliary to the Schools. The absence of school fees is not enough, by itself, to ensure satisfactory school attendance. To send their children to school, families may have to make considerable sacrifices: clothes, shoes and the school equipment needed for each child . . . When children do not go to school, especially in country districts, this is often because of the poverty of their parents, who have not enough money to supply them with the warm clothing and shoes which they need on the sometimes long journey from home to school.

Voluntary associations meet these needs:

The school fund, set up by private initiative in 1849, encourages school attendance. It supplies the poorest children with food, clothing and shoes; it helps the children's families in cases of accident, unemployment or illness. It places orphans or neglected children in benevolent homes or educational institutions. It organizes social services, such as canteens and holiday camps.

A school wardrobe is generally organized in nursery and primary schools, sometimes by the staff, sometimes by the municipality, by the Wards Association or by a private association, such as the *Sou des Écoles*.

The canteen is a mutual assistance service and has a social character when it provides midday meals either free of charge or at a very low price for children belonging to families in difficult circumstances. It can also be considered as a social service in villages where families, even when they have sufficient means and provisions, have no time, or are not willing to spare the time, to prepare a proper meal for their children at midday. Sometimes the children bring the raw ingredients of their meal to be cooked at the canteen. In other cases, the canteen provides a hot meal for pupils whose families are neither poor nor negligent of their children's health, but live so far away from the school that the children are unable to go home for their midday meal. At all events, the canteen, whatever various purposes it serves, can be considered as an auxiliary body of the school, since it facilitates school attendance.

Public School Wards. The Public School Wards Association was originally founded in 1915 to give assistance to war orphans. Since 1929, the Association has extended moral and material help to all public school children handicapped by poverty or misfortune, whether caused by the war or not. In thirty-five years, from 1915 to 1950, the Association has helped 2,650,000 wards; it has spent more than one milliard, two hundred millions in assisting children; it has organized 145 permanent foundations (sanatoria, preventoria, convalescent homes, open-air schools, holiday camps). Its motto might well be Michelet's famous words:

'If your mother cannot feed you, if you are naked, or hungry,

come, my son, the School doors are wide open, and France stands on the threshold to welcome and embrace you.'

The State thus pays the major part of educational costs, but thanks to voluntary efforts—school funds, canteens, wardrobes, wards—auxiliary to the schools, the poorest children receive almost entirely free schooling. These institutions are financed and enabled to work through the generosity and devotion of friends of the secular schools.

Secularity

In his treatise on education, Blanguernon says:

'Many communes only have public schools. Compulsory schooling would become an intolerable tyranny if the State imposed its own doctrines on the schools, and if fathers of families were subject to the fear that certain influences were being brought to bear upon their children, particularly heinous in view of the defencelessness of extreme youth. . . .'

It was in order to allay such fears that secularity was introduced into primary education so that instruction should thenceforth be given by lay teachers along entirely secular lines.

Lay Teachers. Article 17 of the law of 30 October 1886, stipulates that: 'In every kind of public school, only secular staff shall be allowed to teach.'

Secularity of the Teaching. Under the law of 28 March 1882, secularity was introduced into curricula by the deliberate omission of religious teaching from the list of compulsory subjects taught in primary schools, and the right to inspect schools was withdrawn from ecclesiastical officials.

The actual school buildings have to be free from any religious association. The law of 1882 forbids them to be used for classes in religious instruction. A circular dated 9 April 1903 recalls, moreover, that 'no sort of religious emblems (crucifixes, pictures, statues) shall appear in school buildings'.

Secular schools, the schools for people of all beliefs, may teach only that which can be definitely proved by precise methods. They do not teach anything which is only a matter of opinion or belief; they are neutral towards political parties and religions. They embody the rule of modern civilization in matters of opinion—freedom of conscience. Once outside the school, parents are free to give their children religious instruction; and, in order that they may do so, the law of 28 March 1882 obliges schools to close one day per week. Furthermore, instructions issued on 9 April 1903 settled

the practical difficulties encountered in the primary school's relationships with the various religious bodies.

Secular schools neither attack nor defend religious and metaphysical dogmas or systems; religion and metaphysics are not taught and are not therefore subjects of controversy. 'The School is neutral,' said M.G. Séailles, 'in that it is not negative or aggressive, more eager to oppose fallacy than to uphold truth; it seeks above all to unite minds and not to divide them, and its opposition to falsehood and intolerance consists solely in imbuing children's minds with moral truths that no one would dare openly to contest.' Its moral philosophy, based solely on reason and the dignity of mankind, turns to science for laws to govern the lives of individuals and society; it is widely tolerant and acceptable to all, whether followers of some religion or not, for they can either find such a philosophy satisfying in itself or can add to it the rules and sanctions of their own particular religion.

As regards political and social questions, secular schools take no account of parties. Election campaigns and newspaper controversies find no echo there. But neutrality does not mean weakness or indifference. While taking no part in elections, the schools do, in a broad sense, train electors. They make the pupils exercise their powers of observation, reflection, judgment, reasoning and common sense; they develop a feeling of citizenship, love of freedom and respect for the law.

The following recommendation, voted by the Congress of the *Ligue de l'enseignement* in 1905, admirably defines this vigorous neutrality:

- '(1) That this neutrality, due both to respect for parental authority and to the tender years of the pupils, shall be limited to the following definition: schools shall hold aloof from religious matters and from active political issues.
- '(2) That the main task of teachers, inspired by the ideals of 1789 and applying rational methods, shall be to develop: (a) in training the intelligence, a respect for and love of truth, capacity for original thought, the habit of unbiased analysis accompanied by a spirit of tolerance; (b) in ethical training, a respect for human rights and dignity, a consciousness of individual responsibility, combined with a sense of justice and social solidarity; (c) in training for citizenship, fidelity to the principles of democracy and to the Republic which is the highest form of it, and, first and foremost, because it naturally comes before all other considerations, patriotism and the resolve to shoulder manfully all civic and military responsibilities involved in defending one's country, without any relaxation of effort to achieve fraternity among the nations.'

Secular schools are thus neutral, in that they refrain from teaching any religious or political creed; but they do not commit the crime of remaining neutral towards such things as truth, duty, patriotism and humanitarianism. In this manner, they deserve to inspire universal confidence; they strive to unite all citizens in love of their country and the Republic.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

There is in the Ministry a Directorate-General of Primary Education. It consists of a Director-General and about a hundred administrative officers, divided between five Offices.

The 1st Office is responsible for inspectors of all kinds, directors of training colleges and their teaching staff. It manages the administrative side of training colleges and deals with syllabuses.

The 2nd Office is concerned with legal matters, claims, disputes, etc., and is responsible for examinations. School accidents come under its authority. The State relieves a teacher of responsibility in respect of accidents, when such teacher has exercised normal vigilance.

The 3rd Office, in co-operation with the Sub-Directorate of school buildings, is in charge of school buildings and various subventions.

The 4th Office is responsible for teachers: claims, changes of post or department, etc.

The 5th Office deals with all the Directorate's financial affairs.

The Director-General is assisted by an Assistant Director and seven general inspectors of public education. (One of them is responsible for relations with private schools; the others deal with the inspection of training college teachers and departmental inspectors).

Eight general inspectors of elementary schools are responsible for inspecting primary school inspectors and complementary courses;

Six general inspectors of nursery schools (women) inspect the women inspectors of nursery schools;

Two general inspectors of administrative services supervise the management of training colleges;

Two general inspectors of school buildings carry out enquiries connected with those buildings.

The Fourth Republic gave a new status to all its civil servants. This status is based on the following general principle: Assemblies composed half of representatives nominated by the Administration and half of members elected by the staff were formed at the various

levels of the administrative hierarchy. These Assemblies act as advisers to the administrators. They have authority (see appendices): some, to deal with staff questions (Joint Administrative Commissions); others, to deal with technical matters (Joint Technical Committees).

The Directorate of Primary Education:

- (1) Directs the educational policy of primary schools and training colleges by preparing curricula and publishing relevant circulars; by exercising supervision over primary school certificates and examinations; by defining educational methods and procedures.
- (2) Arranges transfers, promotions and changes of inspectors of all kinds, teachers, bursars and principals of training colleges, secretaries of departmental inspectorates, draftsmen.
- (3) Administers, through the departmental inspectors, 158,000 primary school teachers.

At the head of each Academy (of which there are sixteen in France), there is a rector (*recteur*) to whom the departmental inspectors are directly responsible, and who, on their advice, transfers, changes and promotes teachers.

The departmental inspector is the departmental director of education. Assisted by a secretary-general and administrators, he is responsible, among other duties, for directing primary education in his department: examinations, supervision of staff, arrangement of staff transfers, promotions, etc., study of plans for school buildings, fixing of teachers' salaries.

The departmental inspector is Vice-President of the Departmental Council, which has extensive powers (see appendices).

The Departmental Council consists of: *ex-officio* members—the departmental Prefect, who is President; two members appointed by the Minister; two primary school inspectors; two elected members; four general councillors elected by their colleagues; two established teachers elected by the established teachers of the department; two established women teachers elected by the established women teachers of the department; two private school men or women teachers, elected by the men and women directors and assistant directors of private schools.¹

The Council meets at least every three months; its meetings are not public. It has administrative, educational and disciplinary powers, as well as authority to deal with contentious matters. It discusses almost all questions affecting education in the department, and gives the departmental inspector its opinion on them.

The department is divided into *circonscriptions* (districts) which

¹ These representatives are present only during discussions of contentious or disciplinary matters affecting private schools alone.

sometimes coincide with *arrondissements* (main subdivisions of the department). There is a primary education inspector at the head of each *circonscription*. In France, there are 490 primary school inspectors for 158,000 teachers. Each primary school inspector thus has 300 to 400 teachers to supervise. He convenes them for an educational conference once a year. He presides over examinations for school certificates and educational diplomas. He usually inspects the teachers at least once every two years. The primary school inspector examines the preliminary plans for school buildings. He is responsible for inspecting health conditions in private schools. Thirty-one women inspectors supervise the kindergartens and nursery schools, each of them being in charge of two or three departments. Men and women teachers are placed on the strength of a given department, but are sometimes allowed to change departments. They usually attend a training college and, upon leaving it, are first appointed as temporary staff, and then take the oral examination for the teachers' diploma (C.A.P.) (*certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*). The primary school inspector, assisted by two established teachers, attends the lesson given by the candidate and then questions him on administrative law. Once they have passed the C.A.P., the teachers are fully qualified. Some of them can then specialize, according to their capabilities, in one of the following branches: complementary courses; agriculture, and post-scholastic courses in agriculture; domestic science, urban and rural; the teaching of handicapped children; nursery schools; open-air schools.

Marriage is not a bar to the teaching profession for women.

District School Superintendents. In each *canton* (subdivision of an *arrondissement*) a certain number of people ensure that schools are well organized from the material point of view.

District school superintendents, appointed by the departmental Council, report to it on the advisability of opening schools and classes, and on the material condition of school buildings. These superintendents are friendly towards the school and help the teachers in every possible way.

RECRUITMENT OF STAFF: STATUS OF STAFF

Men and Women Primary School Teachers. The training colleges turn out approximately 4,000 new teachers every year (2,000 men and 2,000 women). Further 2,000 *bacheliers* (holders of the school leaving-certificate—*Baccalauréat*) go straight into the teaching profession as deputy or replacement teachers (*suppléants*).

*Training colleges.*¹ These fulfil a twofold purpose: they are cultural institutions to prepare candidates for the *baccalauréat* and are also institutions for vocational training. The course lasts four years. The colleges recruit the main body of candidates (3,700 vacancies) once a year by means of a competitive examination, the standard required being that of the third form of the 'modern' division for pupils who have obtained the certificate at the end of the first secondary school cycle. Auxiliary candidates (300 vacancies) are recruited annually by means of a competitive examination for students who have passed both parts of the *baccalauréat*. Vocational training is both theoretical and practical. Practical knowledge is acquired in schools attached to the college (one for each training college) and in the demonstration schools—with the collaboration of experienced teachers, specialized in the training of student-teachers.

In the attached school, student-teachers study new educational curricula, carry out investigations and studies of child psychology. At the demonstration school, student-teachers learn up-to-date teaching methods which have proved their worth. At the end of their vocational training, student-teachers have to take a trainees' examination. Students at training colleges are boarders. Scholarships are granted to student-teachers while they are preparing for the *baccalauréat*. During their vocational training, they receive a salary, part of which is given to them in the form of a provident fund when they leave the training college. Teachers at training colleges have usually been trained at the senior training colleges at Saint-Cloud and Fontenay. Principals of training colleges are secondary school teachers, who have passed the competitive examination for primary school inspectors, and who are selected from a list of qualified candidates drawn up annually at the Ministry.

Replacement Teachers. Young students who have passed the *baccalauréat* may enter their names each year on a list held at the departmental inspection office. They are then trained gradually to replace established teachers when the latter are absent; they are under the educational supervision of primary school inspectors (who inspect their work, give them advice, and call them together on Thursdays for model lessons). These replacement teachers can take the C.A.P. (teachers' diploma) and become established teachers.

Primary School Inspectors. These are generally former secondary school teachers or outstanding primary school teachers, who have taught for ten years and have passed a difficult competitive examination (350 candidates—thirty passed).

¹ See Appendix 18 for detailed data.

Departmental Inspectors. Some ninety per cent of these are former grammar school (*lycée*) teachers who have passed the *agrégation* examination and have been selected by the Ministry from a list of qualified candidates. Ten per cent of them are former principals of training colleges or primary school inspectors, selected by the Ministry from a list of qualified candidates.

General Inspectors. These are certain departmental inspectors, selected by the Ministry.

Staff Salaries, Promotion, Retirement. Two years ago, France started to reclassify those of its civil servants who belonged to the teaching profession. The reclassification is still in progress. Retiring pensions for length of service are granted to the category known as 'active' civil servants (teachers) at the age of fifty-five and after twenty-five years' service; those known as 'sedentary' civil servants (inspectors) receive a retiring pension at the age of sixty and after thirty years' service. Age limits vary for different categories of staff, and may be prolonged at the request of the persons concerned. Payment of retiring pensions is made on the basis of two per cent, for each working year, of the basic salary last drawn by those concerned, up to a maximum of seventy-five per cent of the said salary.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Primary education begins with nursery-kindergarten schools for children from the ages of two to six. Kindergarten school mistresses, who have the same educational background as primary school teachers, are specialized in teaching very young children. Primary schools are divided into: preparatory classes (six to seven years); elementary classes, 1st and 2nd year (eight to nine years); intermediate classes, 1st and 2nd year (ten to eleven years); top class (twelve years).

At eleven (or twelve) years of age, various possibilities are open to children. They can: go to a *lycée* or *collège* (grammar or secondary schools); follow a technical training course (apprenticeship centre or preparatory classes); follow a continuation course of studies (twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen years); attend finishing classes (thirteen, fourteen years); or attend pre-apprenticeship classes (thirteen, fourteen years).

The continuation course of primary studies, consisting of the sixth, fifth, fourth and third grades, keeps pupils for four years and may select candidates to take competitive examinations for training college entrance and various diplomas.

For the school year 1949-50, children at the various levels of primary education were divided up as follows:

Public education	Continuation courses	Number of pupils entered for the		
		finishing classes	top class	other classes or elementary classes
Boys . . .	84,994	257,634	81,698	1,329,011
Girls . . .	107,807	241,590	77,466	1,182,908
Total . . .	192,801	499,224	159,164	2,511,919

In 1948-49, 202,032 boys and 180,012 girls terminated their compulsory schooling.

In the same year, children left primary schools for the following destinations:

Secondary Schools: 18 per cent of 11-year group (classical division, 11,326 boys, 9,931 girls; modern division, 21,171 boys, 29,032 girls).

Technical Training Courses: 10 per cent of 13-year group; 22,115 boys, 18,153 girls.

Secondary Agricultural Training Courses: 1 per cent of 13-year group; 3,781 boys, 1,923 girls.

Continuation Courses: 13 per cent of 11-year group; 25,537 boys, 26,617 girls.

Entered *apprenticeship* under supervision: 23 per cent; either at the technical training centre (aged 13 years), or in a business firm (aged 14 years).

It should be noted that the above figures are for children from eleven to fourteen years.

National scholarships for secondary schools, technical training courses or primary education (additional courses) are awarded to promising pupils in primary schools whose families are too poor to allow them to continue their studies. The total amount of the scholarship varies from 40,000 to 75,000 frs. It is adjusted to the fees charged for boarding in the various establishments. An average scholarship at present amounts to a total of 42,000 frs. Maintenance grants (maximum 9,720 frs.) may be allocated to out-students.

The procedure for the allocation of scholarships is the following: In January of each year, candidates' files are deposited in the Departmental Inspectorate, in the principal town of the department. They are then examined by various bodies: departmental, regional (at the seat of the Academy), and governmental (the Ministry) if parents appeal against the regional decision. A necessary criterion for the selection of candidates is that their parents' income shall be below a certain level. To prove their intellectual abilities, candidates are then required to take the sixth grade entrance examination.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

*Primary school examinations:*¹ school leaving certificate (fourteen years); entrance examination for the sixth grade of the additional course, *lycées* and *collèges* (grammar and secondary schools) (eleven years); certificate at the end of the first secondary school cycle (fifteen years); elementary certificate for teaching ability (fifteen years).

CURRICULA, TIME-TABLES, HOLIDAYS, etc.

Number of hours devoted to lessons. Article 19 of the Order of 18 January 1887 lays down that thirty hours per week shall be devoted to lessons.

As Article 2 of the law of 28 March 1882 sets aside one day a week, besides Sundays, for religious instruction, the thirty hours of lessons per week are divided over five days, making six hours per day.

Further, Article 6 of the Order of 18 January 1887, containing model school regulations, lays down that: 'Lessons shall be given for three hours in the morning and three hours in the afternoon. The morning lessons shall begin at 8 a.m. and the afternoon lessons at 1 p.m. The opening and closing times may, however, be changed by the Primary School Inspector, at the request of the local authorities, to suit local needs. An appeal against such a decision may be brought before the Departmental Inspector.'

Holidays: School holidays, uniform for all public educational establishments, were fixed by the Order of 11 February 1939.

All Saints : 1 and 2 November.

Christmas and New Year. From the evening of 23 December to 2 January inclusive. When 23 December falls on a Sunday or Thursday, the holidays begin one day earlier. When 3 January falls on a Sunday or a Thursday, schools reopen one day later.

Shrove Tuesday. Monday, Shrove Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday when Palm Sunday is in April. If it is not in April, there is no holiday.

Easter. The week preceding and the week following Easter Sunday.

Whitsun. When no holiday has been given for Shrove Tuesday, there shall be a holiday from Whit-Sunday until the following Thursday, inclusive.

Summer holidays. From 15 July until 30 September inclusive.

The following days are also holidays: 1 May, Whit-Monday, 14 July and 11 November. No other holidays shall be given, even

¹ See Appendices.

if compensated by holding extra classes on a Thursday, except by Ministerial decision.

Curricula and time-tables. In nursery schools, except for any changes necessitated by local circumstances, the following weekly time-table shall be observed:

Recreation and cleanliness	5 hours
Rhythmic exercises	2½ hours
Sensorial and observation exercises	2 hours
Modelling, drawing	2 hours
Handicrafts	2 hours
Singing and music	2½ hours
Stories	2 hours
French language (elocution, reading, writing).	10 hours
Arithmetic	2 hours
TOTAL	30 hours

In elementary schools, the following is the time-table:

Subjects	Preparatory classes	Elementary classes	Intermediate and top classes
Ethics	1¼	1¼	1¼
Reading	10	6¼	3½
Writing.	2½	2½	1¼
French language.	2½	5	6¼
History and geography	—	1½	2
Arithmetic	3¾	3¾	5
Observation exercises.	—	1	2
Drawing or handicrafts	1½	1½	1½
Singing.	1¼	1¼	1¼
Supervised activities	2¼	1	1
Outdoor exercise and gymnastics	2½	2½	2½
Recreation	2½	2½	2½
TOTAL	30 hrs.	30 hrs.	30 hrs.

		Finishing Classes
Ethics and introduction to citizenship	2 hrs.	
French	6 hrs.	
History and geography.	3 hrs.	
Pure and applied arithmetic.	5 hrs.	
Elementary applied science, practical work and diagrams.	6 hrs.	
Supervised activities	2 hrs.	
Musical education.	1 hr.	
Outdoor exercise and gymnastics	2½ hrs.	
Recreation	2½ hrs.	
TOTAL	30 hrs.	

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

	6th and 5th grades	Additional courses 4th and 3rd grades
French	6 hrs.	5 hrs.
Training in citizenship	1 hr.	1 hr.
History and geography	3 hrs.	3 hrs.
Modern language	5 hrs.	4 hrs.
Mathematics and geometrical drawing	4 hrs.	4 hrs.
Handicrafts	2 hrs.	1½ hrs.
Physics	2 hrs.	3 hrs.
Natural sciences	1½ hrs.	1 hr.
Drawing	1½ hrs.	1½ hrs.
Music	1 hr.	1 hr.
Gymnastics	2 hrs.	2 hrs.
TOTAL	27 hrs.	27 hrs.

The Circular of 27 July 1882 defines the aims and limits of primary education in France:

Aim of Intellectual Training: Intellectual training, as far as it can be given in public primary schools, is easily defined.

‘It covers a limited range of subjects, but these are chosen in such a way that children are not only equipped with the practical knowledge which they will need in after-life, but are really educated in the true sense—their faculties being developed, their minds trained, enriched and broadened.

‘The primary school’s ideal is not to teach a great deal, but to teach it well. Children leave school with a limited knowledge, but what they have been taught they know thoroughly; their learning is restricted, but not superficial. They do not possess a half-knowledge, and will, therefore, not be sciolists; for what makes any education complete or incomplete, is not the amount of information imparted, but the manner in which it is imparted.

‘Primary schools, owing both to the age of the pupils and to the careers that they are to follow, have neither the time nor the means for the same course of studies as that taken in secondary schools; what primary schools can do is to see that their pupils derive as much benefit and usefulness from their simpler studies as pupils in grammar schools do from secondary education: the idea is that all pupils in public schools should leave them with a certain fund of knowledge suited to their future needs and that they should, above all, have acquired the habit of constructive thought, an open and alert mind, clear ideas, judgment, reflection, order and accuracy in thought and speech. “The aim of education,” as has very rightly been said, “is not to teach all that can possibly be known about the

various subjects, but to give a thorough grounding in what it is essential to know about them."

'Method. Once the aim of education is thus defined, the method to be followed is self-evident. It cannot be confined to the progressive masters of mechanical techniques nor to the teaching of the rudimentary means of communication, reading, writing and arithmetic. Nor must there be a succession of dull lessons, merely laying before the pupils the various items of the curriculum.

"The only possible method for primary education is to allow teacher and pupils to speak freely, each in his turn, keeping up a continual flow and exchange of ideas, varied, undogmatic and imperceptibly growing more complex. The teacher must always start from something which the children know, and then, passing from the known to the unknown, from easy to difficult things, lead them by oral questions and written exercises to discover for themselves the consequences of a principle, the applications of a rule, or, on the other hand, the principles and rules which they have already unconsciously applied in practice.

"In all education, the teacher must begin by using tangible and visible objects, making the children look at them and touch them, confronting them with material things: then, gradually, he accustoms them to considering those objects in abstract terms, comparing, generalizing and reasoning without the help of concrete examples.

"Thus primary teachers can succeed only if they appeal constantly to the attention, judgment and spontaneous intelligence of their pupils. It is essentially a matter of intuition and of appreciating the importance of practical considerations. The intuitive teacher counts primarily on children's natural common sense, the power of evidence, human beings' innate capacity to understand at a glance, and without being shown, not all the facts, but the simplest and most essential facts. With regard to practical considerations, teachers must never forget that primary school children have no time to waste on idle discussions, erudite theories, matters of purely academic interest, and that five to six years at school is all too short a time to provide them with the small stock of knowledge indispensable to their needs and, above all, to enable them to keep that knowledge and build upon it later.

"By observing those two conditions, primary school teachers can train and enrich their pupils' minds. Relying on nature to guide them, they must develop powers of intelligence by the only means at their disposal: by stimulating children's minds to work simply, spontaneously, almost instinctively; they must develop discernment by making children judge facts, powers of observation by making them observe many things, powers of reasoning by

helping them to reason independently without rules of logic.

'This confidence in the latent powers of intelligence which are only waiting to be developed, and the absence of any pretention to really scientific training, are appropriate in all elementary teaching but are particularly necessary in public primary schools which have to consider, not a few individual children, but the whole of the child population. Primary school teaching has to be collective and simultaneous; teachers cannot concentrate on a few children, their duty is to the whole class: it is on the results obtained by the class as a whole and not on those achieved by a few promising individuals that a teacher's worth should be judged. However different the levels of intelligence in a class, the teacher should be able to impart a minimum of knowledge and practical ability to all pupils, with a few very rare exceptions. Many pupils will of course easily progress beyond that minimum, but if it is not reached by all the rest of the class, this will mean that the teacher has not really understood his task or has not carried it out properly.'

Present primary school curricula are still based on the above circular (see Appendices).

BUILDINGS

There are two types of primary school buildings. In some cases such buildings are compulsory, and in others optional.

'Every commune must have at least one public primary school. The same applies to any hamlet, situated three kms. away from the principal town of the district or from any other urban centre, where there are fifteen or more children of school age. . . . Any commune or group of communes with 500 or more inhabitants must have a special school for girls, unless the Departmental Council has authorized it to replace such a school by a co-educational school' (Laws of 30 October 1886 and 11 August 1936.)

Schools enabling compulsory schooling to be enforced are thus compulsory. Further, an Order of 18 October 1945 made it compulsory for certain communes to set up school medical centres. The provision of living accommodation for the teaching staff is also compulsory. These institutions must be built, even if the municipal council is against them (compulsory building: Law of 10 July 1903); once schools are built, the municipal council cannot abolish them.

Optional buildings are those intended either for children who are not liable to compulsory schooling or for children who, although obliged to attend school, cannot attend a compulsory school. These are buildings for nursery schools, girls' schools in communes

with a population of less than 500, kindergartens and additional courses.

Article 1 of the Law of 9 August 1879 lays down the principle that every department should have two teachers' training colleges, one for men and one for women, large enough to ensure the necessary recruitment of men and women teachers.

The State bears part of the cost of school buildings. The amount which it grants may not exceed the estimate, including ten per cent for unforeseen costs and five per cent for fees. For nursery and elementary schools and additional courses, State grants may not exceed ninety per cent of the total costs, and for other educational establishments they are limited to seventy-five per cent.

The building of a school cannot be started until the plans have been studied by the Departmental Inspector, until the general or municipal council has voted approval, the departmental council has expressed its opinion and classified the building, and the ministerial committee for school buildings has studied the matter and taken a favourable decision. This procedure is rather long; it generally takes one to two years. The building of schools is supervised by special general inspectors.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Private education includes a few Protestant, Jewish and secular schools, but most private schools are Catholic.

Private Catholic schools. Nine hundred thousand boys and girls attend private Catholic schools (see Appendices). These institutions are particularly numerous in the western departments: La Vendée, Morbihan, Loire-Inférieure and Maine-et-Loire, where the inhabitants were late in reconciling themselves to a Republican régime. In those departments, there is strong competition between public and private schools, and fifty per cent of the children of school age attend the latter. In some other very Catholic parts of France such as Lorraine, on the other hand, private schools are almost non-existent.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

'Christian teachers come under the authority of the Church. No school can call itself Christian if it has not been established or

CHAPTER FOUR

ADAPTATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION TO NEW CONDITIONS

SCHOOL HEALTH

Since 1945 a new School Health Service has been organized, under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, for the children of public and private schools. The service is financed by the State (fifty per cent), departments (twenty-five per cent), and communes (twenty-five per cent), and is responsible for:

- (1) *Care of the children's health.* It was possible in 1948 to examine the health of eighty-five per cent of primary school children. They are weighed, examined and measured. Tuberculin skin tests are carried out systematically. Families are informed of the medical findings.
- (2) *Care of teachers' health* and of that of the service staff. In 1948, 110,000 X-ray examinations were made; they revealed three to ten sick teachers per 1,000 examined. The School Health Service has at its disposal a body of specialized doctors and nurses, fixed school medicine centres (1,000 in France) and school medicine lorries.

In 1947-48 nearly eighty-five per cent of primary school children and ninety per cent of teachers were examined: thirty-eight per cent of the children had oral and dental disorders; thirty per cent of the children had ear, throat or nose complaints; thirteen per cent of the children had eye trouble; seventeen per cent of the children suffered from different diseases, such as cardiopathy, asthma, etc.

The School Health Service has opened psycho-educational centres for maladjusted children. It also looks after hygiene in schools and canteens. These tasks represent an enormous programme.

NEW METHODS OF EDUCATION

A certain number of teachers and school inspectors have embarked in the last thirty years on a drastic reform of teaching methods. They have substituted active methods of teaching, fitted to the individual pupils, for collective teaching by the master. Each class consists of four or five work and play teams. These teams make

use of card indexes, collections, books and simple apparatus for demonstration. The teams work on their own initiative and independently of each other; the teacher's function is only to suggest. The new methods, which include school printing presses and the use of cinema, radio and television, have revolutionized French education. Cheerfulness has taken the place of austerity. Today nearly ten per cent of French schools have adopted the active methods, which have now spread to secondary schools.

POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND RURAL DOMESTIC SCIENCE

The Ministries of Education and Agriculture are jointly making a great effort to create an enlightened peasantry. One thousand three hundred elementary school teachers of both sexes are devoting their entire time to this teaching, after receiving their diplomas in agriculture and rural domestic science. Travelling teachers give lessons on these subjects in three or four communes every week. Other teachers give communal or inter-communal lectures. Instruction is given in private schools also.

COURSES FOR NORTH AFRICAN AND FOREIGN WORKERS

In the most important towns adaptation courses are given for adults with an insufficient knowledge of French. The courses take place in the evening in the public schools; a special primary school certificate, reserved for adults, is awarded. Several tens of thousands of North Africans and foreigners attend these adaptation courses, to which is attached a welfare service.

PROBLEMS OF THE FUTURE

REFORM OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Public and private schools have nowadays fewer pupils than before the war:

	1938 —	1948 —
Public schools	4,869,000	4,144,000
Private schools.	959,000.	904,000

The number of classes in each category is much the same as before the 1939-1945 war; the average number of pupils in each class has fallen from thirty-two to twenty-eight in public schools and from thirty-two to thirty in private schools. Nevertheless, in public schools classes are still over-crowded (more than forty-five or even fifty pupils). This state of affairs is due to the gradual depopulation of rural areas in favour of the towns (a migration of one per cent in ten years). Attendance in a country class falls from twenty to seventeen pupils, but the master remains; the urban centre receives, say, forty pupils from the surrounding country and a new class has to be created. Thus the average size of a class varies considerably from one department to another: from forty-two in the Seine (nine classes per school) to fifteen in the Lozère (one class per school).

The existing distribution of classes throughout the country is therefore unsatisfactory. There is urgent need of a big building programme for urban schools. In addition, public education must try to reduce the prohibitive cost of small village schools (one commune has nine such schools for a thousand inhabitants). Two solutions are possible:

Collection of the Children

A motor-bus calls at farms and hamlets every day to pick up the children, who eat their midday meal in the school canteen.

Although that solution is economical it meets with certain difficulties. Most of these thinly attended schools are in the mountains and it is almost impossible for the bus to do its rounds after

snow has fallen. Nor do parents favour the system. Finally, the suppression of the small village school encourages desertion of the countryside. Altogether the Ministerial budget provides fifteen millions to subsidize (up to seventy-five per cent) this collection system.

Primary Boarding Schools

It would be useful to establish a large number of public primary boarding schools and locate them in the principal townships. The village children would attend from Monday to Wednesday and from Friday to Saturday.

These schools, each with several classes, would be educationally more efficient than the one-class schools. The teaching staff would no longer be isolated. The pupils would sleep in the school only three days a week (Monday, Tuesday, Friday) and would not be kept unduly separated from their parents. The saving in teachers' posts would help to provide pupils with scholarships. In this field hardly anything has yet been done in schools run by the State (books, financing and management of boarding schools, etc.).

There are very few private schools with only one class, but a great number of boarding schools, hence the comparative success of private education in rural areas. A further reason for the present lack of public schools is the 1939-45 war, which stopped the building and repair of schools for five years and was also responsible for the destruction of many school buildings.

Altogether nearly fifteen thousand class-rooms need urgently to be built to meet current requirements.

THE PROBLEM OF NUMBERS: PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS

The increase in the number of children attending public and private schools since 1900 is shown in the annexed tables, as well as changes in the number of classes and schools. It should be noted that the additional courses in public education are meeting with very great success and gain 5,000 to 6,000 pupils every year. A further problem is raised by the growing birth-rate. The table below shows the *relative* number of children aged six to twelve and six to thirteen at the end of the corresponding years:

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

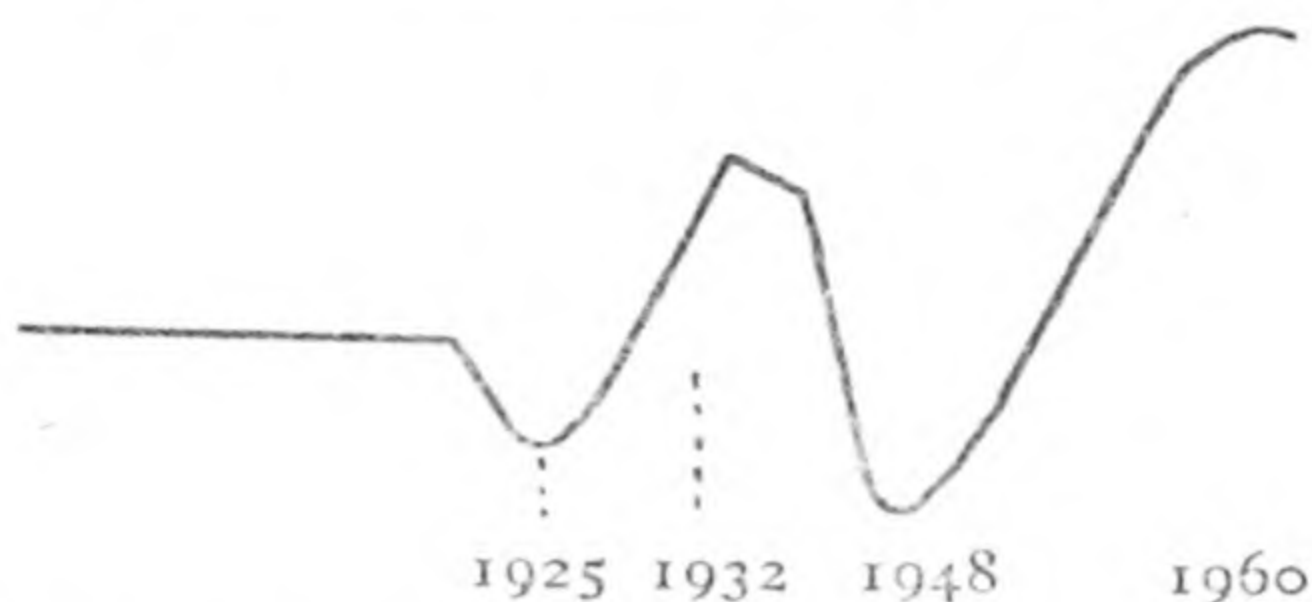
Year	Age groups (in thousands)			
	5 years of age	6 to 12 years of age	13 years of age	6 to 13 years of age
1925	740	3,310	680	3,990
1932	680	4,960	450	5,410
1934	660	4,810	730	5,540
1935	680	4,760	700	5,460
1936	660	4,740	690	5,440
1937	660	4,720	680	5,400
1938	620	4,670	690	5,360
1939	610	4,590	680	5,270
1940	590	4,530	660	5,190
1941	580	4,440	670	5,110
1942	560	4,360	650	5,010
1943	560	4,240	670	4,910
1944	550	4,130	650	4,780
1945	500	4,030	640	4,670
1946	470	3,890	610	4,500
1947	520	3,750	600	4,350
1948	560	3,690	570	4,260
1949	570	3,680	560	4,240
1950	580	3,690	560	4,250
1951	750	3,720	550	4,270
1952	780	3,920	550	4,470
1953	780	4,210	490	4,700
1954	730	4,520	460	4,980
1955	680	4,730	510	5,240
1956	680	4,850	550	5,400
1957	—	4,950	—	5,520
1958	—	5,060	—	5,630
1959	—	4,970	—	5,720
1960	—	4,880	—	5,650
1961	—	4,780	—	5,550
1962	—	4,730	—	5,450
1963	—	4,730	—	5,410

The above estimates are based, until 1954, on generations which are already born and, therefore, can be considered as certain. For the following years some doubt exists, since the forecasts as to the future birth-rate cannot be certain. Nevertheless the margin of error will not be great. The table could easily be expressed as a graph showing two important points: (firstly) two deep troughs, one in 1925 and the other between 1946 and 1950.

The first one is due to the five reduced age-groups of 1915-19 reaching school age; the sharp fall is followed by generations larger than the normal, reaching a peak in 1932. The second drop is due to the small number of births among the members of the 1914-18 war generations, themselves notably depleted. It is aggravated by

the effects of the 1939-45 conflict. The trough is not quite so deep as in 1925, but its spread is wider.

Secondly, between these two troughs, we find two periods of rise and stabilization; the first is followed by a rapid fall after 1935;



the second rise is more sustained and reaches its peak in 1959. A rational policy of school building should be based on the most accurate demographic estimates, and not improvised after the most urgent school needs have come to light. The disturbances produced by the sparse age groups and by migratory movements have been taken into account only under pressure of circumstances and to an insufficient extent.

The resulting situation greatly worsened during the last war, owing to the ban on school construction and to the destruction due to military operations. The decrease in the number of school children—which partly concealed the difficulties awaiting us in the field—has created a temporary but dangerous illusion. It is high time to be rid of it, and to grasp that the present situation is in no way a consequence of the recent recovery in the birth-rate. The impending and foreseeable increase of school enrolments, far from signifying an alarming phenomenon, is a sign of returning normality after the disturbances of war. The present numbers are abnormally low and the existing situation can be validly assessed only if that is borne in mind.

On the basis of the preceding statistics, we may forecast the following figures for 1959: 5,600,000 pupils in public schools; 1,200,000 pupils in private schools.

Assuming an average of thirty-three pupils per class, public schools will thus need in 1959 nearly 170,000 class-rooms, i.e., 12,000 more than they possess at present (158,000).¹

On the basis of present needs—15,000 classes—27,000 class-rooms must be built in nine years, i.e., more than 3,000 a year, and

¹ Another way of computing the 1959 needs is the following: excess of school attendance in 1959 over 1950: 5,600,000 less 4,200,000 = 1,400,000; granting that one million of this future addition will be absorbed without undue difficulty by the village and small town schools, there would remain 400,000 for whom the overcrowded classes in the larger towns could find no room. Hence 13,000 new class-rooms must be built before 1959.

the number of trainee teachers increased by 1,333 a year (12,000 divided by nine).

Owing to prevailing financial difficulties, only 1,200 class-rooms could be built last year and 800 the year before. It will be relatively easier to find the necessary teachers if a readier welcome is offered to holders of the *baccalauréat* who wish to become teachers and are willing to act as replacement teachers.

PRIMARY EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM SCHEMES

A Commission, presided over first by Professor Langevin and later by Professor Wallon, has since 1945 been studying—at the request of the Ministry of Education—a radical reform of French public education. The final report of the Commission is attached as an annex. It proposes to meet the following criticism which may be directed against the organization of French education: the present school system is not democratic enough (in 1946 the 166,000 university students included only a handful of workmen's sons); French university structure lacks unity and harmony; some institutions overlap whilst others are lacking; schooling has little relation to everyday life.

The Commission asked for a reform of educational methods and of the structure of the university system.

The broad spirit of the reform is quite clear. It is to foster the maximum development of every individual, in his own and in the community's interest, and to encourage the growth of human personality. To that end it is necessary to provide high grade education over a fairly long period of years.

Up to eleven years of age, all children who attend public schools are taught in common, all acquiring the same basic mechanisms and the same ethical and civic training. From eleven to fifteen their individual tastes and aptitudes are noted and they are directed towards separate branches of learning. Later they fall into definite sections in which young people are classified in terms of the part they will play in the social division of labour. Specialization, therefore, takes place rather late and even then the educator takes the greatest care to maintain harmony between the intellectual and logical elements of culture, between the professional and practical elements and aesthetic and moral factors.

The methods to be used are active ones, that is to say, they appeal, for every kind of knowledge and for each discipline, to the initiative of the children themselves. The methods involve alternating individual and team work, since both call forth the children's different aptitudes, the former by making them tackle the diffi-

culties of study with their own resources, the latter by making them choose a particular role and a personal responsibility in the collective task.

In that way the child's intellectual and social capacities are revealed and, owing to the latitude allowed for spontaneity, the teaching received is, so to speak, 'made to measure'.

With regard to teaching methods, educational reform has already begun. The active method is an interesting aspect of present day public schools. Although Parliament has taken no decision yet concerning the projected structural reform of the University system, the principle of compulsory attendance up to seventeen or eighteen years of age is likely to be retained. This compulsory teaching would, of course, be free, and the Fourth Republic would then be faced by a wide range of problems. France has nowadays about 1,900,000 young people in the fourteen to eighteen age group, divided as follows:

In secondary schools (1 January 1950): public, 437,000 pupils; private, 319,000 pupils.

In technical schools: public, 247,000 pupils; private, 197,000 pupils.

A total of 1,200,000 young people are, therefore, studying: in public schools, 684,000 (57 per cent); in private schools, 516,000 (43 per cent).

If the same proportions are retained, it would be necessary to create the entire educational apparatus for 700,000 young people: in public schools, 399,000; in private schools, 301,000.

In public schools 13,300 class-rooms (for thirty pupils each) would be required, with an outlay of 66.5 thousand millions (five million per class-room). In addition, expensive professional equipment would have to be bought and maintained. A body of some 26,000 teachers and technicians would have to be recruited at an annual cost of about seventeen thousand millions. The expenditure entailed may be computed in still another way: the average cost of technical or secondary education for one pupil is approximately 50,000 frs. per annum; the total annual cost would, therefore, be in the neighbourhood of twenty thousand millions.

On the same bases a capital of forty-nine thousand millions for premises and a per annum expenditure of about thirteen thousand millions for private schools would have to be provided.

Possibly, however, educational reform might involve the State in much greater outlay, because it would be called upon to shoulder almost alone all new expenses and to provide for the education of most of the young people. In order to embark upon reform, the National Education budget would have to be increased from 132 to nearly 200 thousand millions.

The extension of the school age up to eighteen therefore raises difficult financial problems, but experience has proved that money spent on education is a fruitful investment. The Quebec Fishermen's Co-operative is an excellent example.¹ After the 1914-18 war, the income from fishing in the province of Quebec dropped sharply owing to the slump in the price of fish: 1918, \$2,350,000; 1928, \$960,000; 1938, \$350,000.

The fishermen were destitute and it became clear that they must be re-educated (they still fished with eighteenth century hand lines.)

A Fisheries High School and professional courses were established. As the knowledge and co-operative education of the fishermen increased, so did the yield of the fisheries. The latter went gradually up from 64,906 cwts. of fish in 1939 to 208,476 cwts. in 1944. At the same time the fishermen's life was transformed: libraries, cinemas, theatres, sport, and the improvement of housing and material conditions made similar advances now that the men were earning comfortable livelihoods. Thus the school had not only warded off depression but was the starting point of a beneficial social transformation.

¹ 'Les Pêcheurs Unis de Quebec', by Lucien Beaugé in *Economie et humanisme* (Lyon). No. 28, 1946. November-December, p. 603.

CONCLUSIONS

The first 'French' primary schools were established in the Middle Ages by the Church authorities. There were, however, many obstacles to an increase in the numbers of these schools, and there could therefore be no question of compulsory education. The educational methods in use were, moreover, very little developed; memory was cultivated to the detriment of the critical habit of mind, and discipline was extremely severe. Children were, in fact, broken in rather than educated.

The violent stimulus administered by the Reformation, the first great inventions, the first great voyages of discovery, and the Renaissance, brought about an intellectual revolution. Printing made it possible to spread books far and wide. A critical attitude began to develop; scholars went back to the original sources. A new conception of education came into being, more liberal, better adapted to the needs of the child, and producing better results. Moreover, the general increase of wealth resulting from international trade, improved methods of agriculture and the beginning of industrial development, made it possible to found and maintain more schools.

The eighteenth century and the Revolution of 1789 overthrew the old ideas of society. The rights of the individual, and therefore of the child, were accorded recognition. The idea of individual merit supplanted that of hereditary privilege. Every child was to be given the opportunity to make use of all the aptitudes he possessed, and therefore to learn. But the teaching given was to be free from all taint of dogmatism, from any undue intellectual bias.

From the middle of the nineteenth century onwards, France was extremely prosperous; agricultural production went up tenfold, industrial production a hundredfold, and intermediary, commercial and general activities fivefold. The structure of the French population changed. The number of workers employed on 'menial tasks' was reduced. Three workers (one employed in agriculture, one in industry, and one on other work) for every six people in France were soon enough to furnish a far higher standard of living than that prevailing in the seventeenth century. It was no longer necessary to put the children of the poor to work. France was easily able

to devote 1.6 per cent of her active adult population to teaching. Social and economic conditions were ripe for the introduction of universal primary education and the establishment of the Third Republic made the political climate propitious. Democracy needed citizens who could read and write.

The interests of the Government were identical with those of industry, agriculture and commerce, which all regarded education as an investment increasing their productive capacity. General education was becoming a vital necessity. The basic laws introducing compulsory schooling and State provision for primary education were passed at this time. In order that all children, whatever the financial position of their parents, might attend school, tuition in the public schools was to be entirely free.

In the interests of real and complete freedom, it was also to be secular and non-political, to suit all children, whatever the political, philosophical or religious leanings of their families.

The results of these provisions proved most satisfactory: nearly a million children who had previously been receiving no education, came to school; children, particularly girls, really did attend school. From then on, all the children in France spent eight years at school, each year representing 1,200 hours; the standard of education in primary schools was considerably improved and better adapted to the country's needs; new educational methods suited to the children were applied in the schools.

The success achieved by the public schools was considerable, as the school rolls soon accounted for more than four-fifths of the children of school age.

Compulsory attendance which was accepted without difficulty by the country as a whole, became a normal habit of life; indeed there was a tendency to send children to school before the lower limit of six, and to keep them there after the upper limit of fourteen, specified in the law. Both the nursery schools and additional courses and secondary schools, found their enrolments increasing rapidly from year to year. At present, nearly fifty per cent of the children between the ages of two and six, and more than sixty per cent of those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, attend school. Public opinion would probably accept without any great difficulty an extension of the legal age-limits for compulsory school attendance.

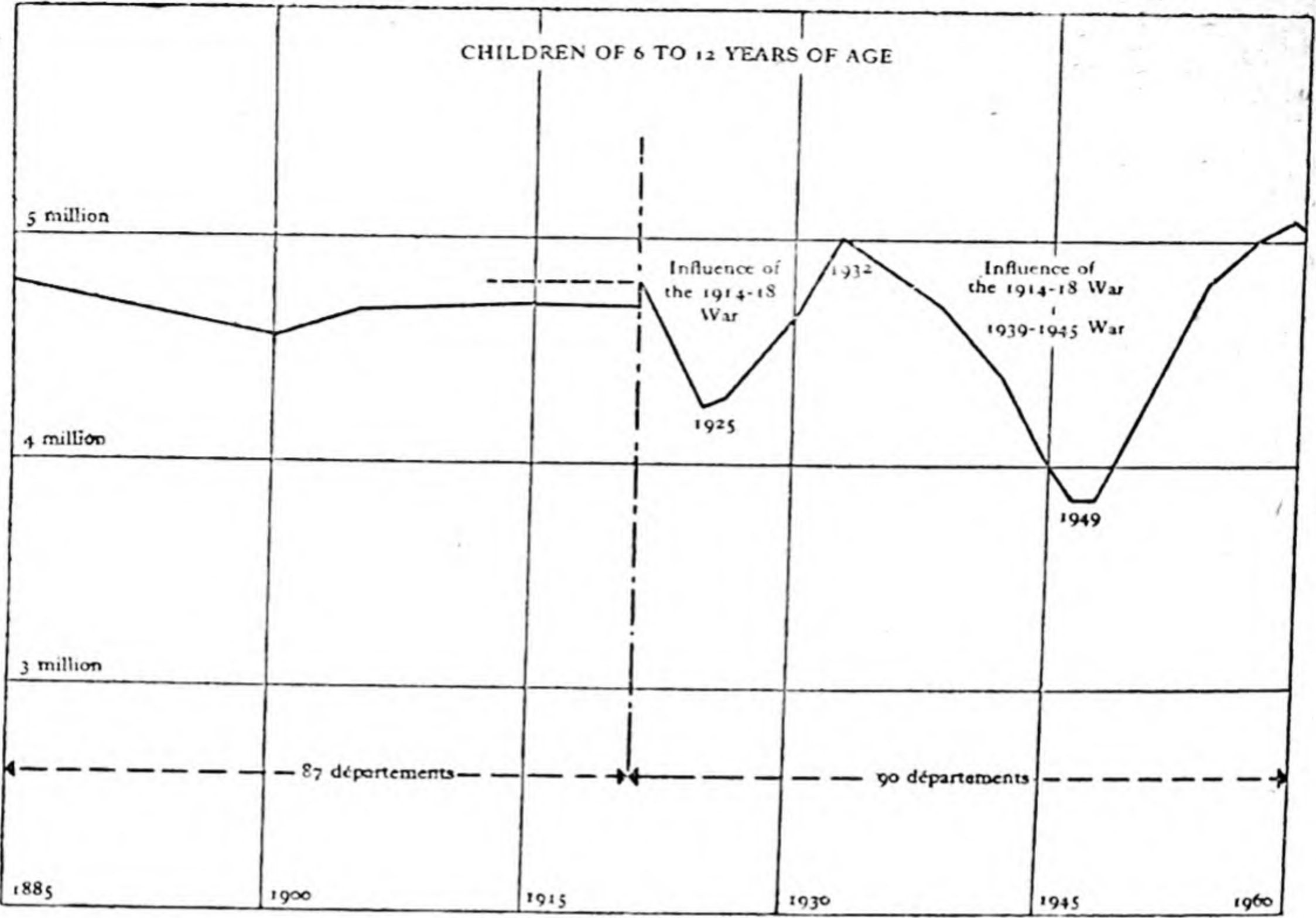
The public schools are steadily improving. The training of teachers has been progressively expanded and perfected. Although they were formerly required to hold only the elementary certificate (*brevet élémentaire*), teachers must now have passed both parts of the *baccalauréat* or secondary leaving certificate before taking one or two years of professional training. At the same time, primary education has naturally become more and more efficient, while

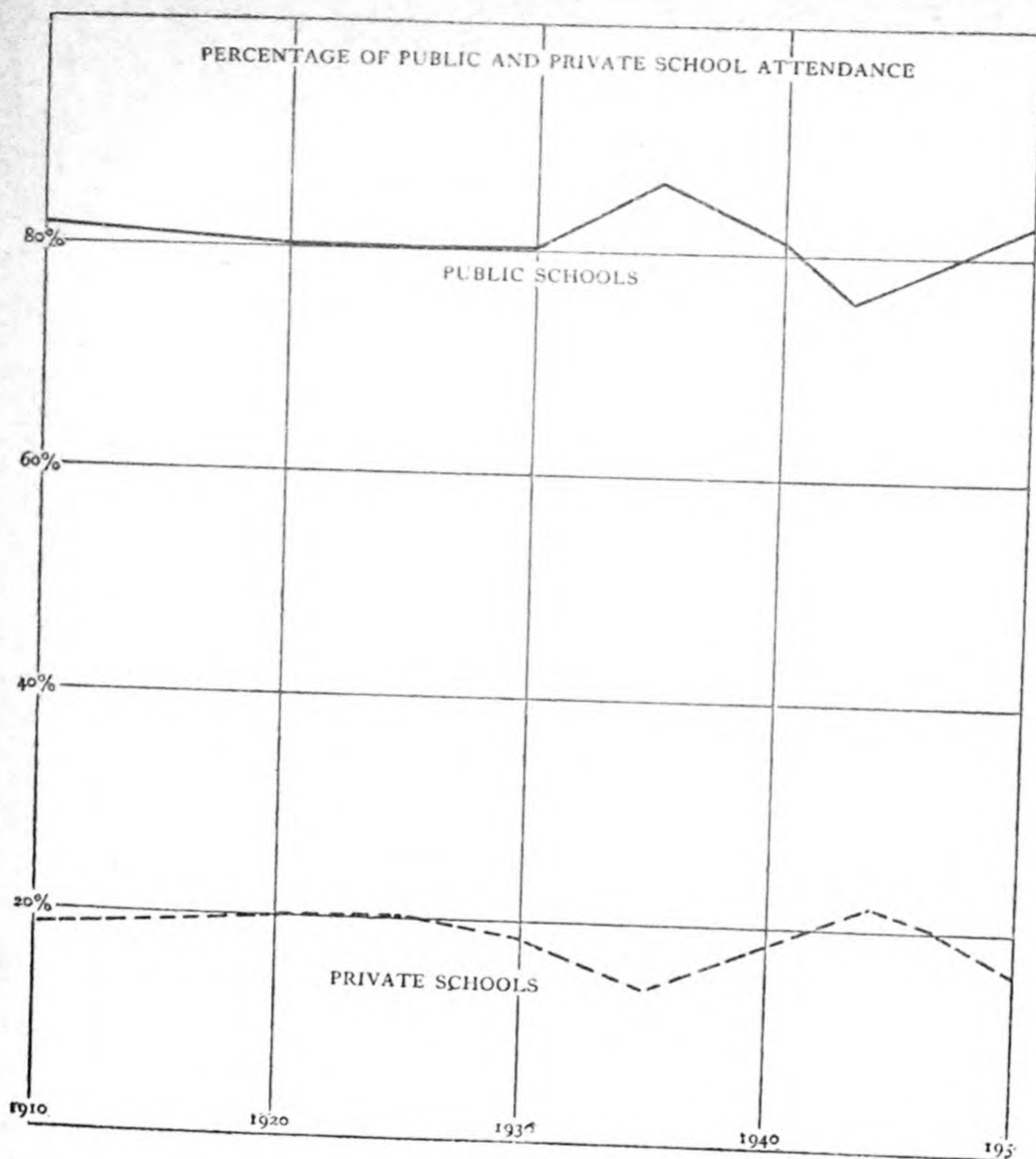
educational methods have been ever better adapted to the tastes and aptitudes of children. Teachers have been allowed wide discretion in their methods, so long as they conform to the set curricula and general instructions. French primary schools are now lively and dynamic institutions, growing steadily better fitted to advance the welfare of the country. The centralization of primary school organization in France has proved an effective means of securing uniformity throughout the country. Experience is showing that this was one of the best achievements of the Third Republic.

LIST OF APPENDICES

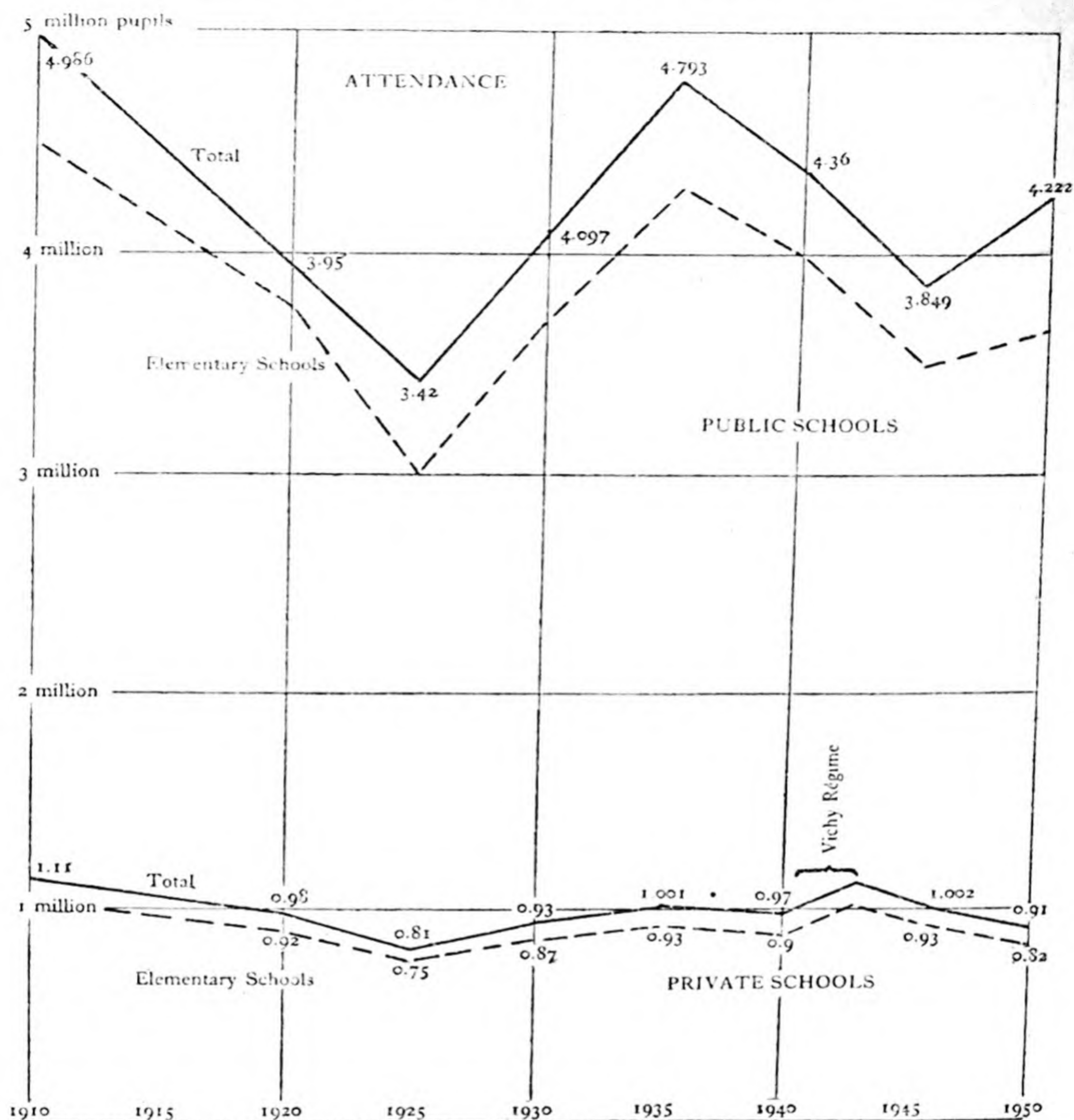
Graphs	82
1. Number of public and private primary schools	87
2. Number of classes in each category	87
3. Statistics of public primary school teachers (1 January 1950).	88
4. Number of pupils in public primary schools	89
5. Number of pupils in private primary schools.	89
6. Examination results in primary schools.	90
7. Evolution of school attendance—public and private schools	90
8. Logarithms of the number of pupils—public and private schools	91
9. Evolution of continuation courses.	92
10. List of laws and decrees governing primary education.	92
11. Compulsory education—Law of 28 March 1882 as amended by those of 9 August 1936 and 22 May 1946.	93
12. Family allowances—Inter-departmental Circular of 22 April 1949.	99
13. Adjustment schools and classes for backward children—Law of 1909	102
14. Secularity—Laws of 28 March 1882 and 9 December 1905	105
15. Continuation classes—Regulations of 1938.	108
16. District superintendents of schools—Regulations of 16 May 1922. Circular of 5 December 1924.	109
17. Departmental Council and Joint Administrative Commissions	114
18. Teachers' Training Colleges—Decree of 6 June 1946 (Organization, Administration)—Decree of 10 May 1948—Circular of 15 November 1947 (Time-tables and curricula of vocational training).	116
19. Bill on the education of handicapped children.	135

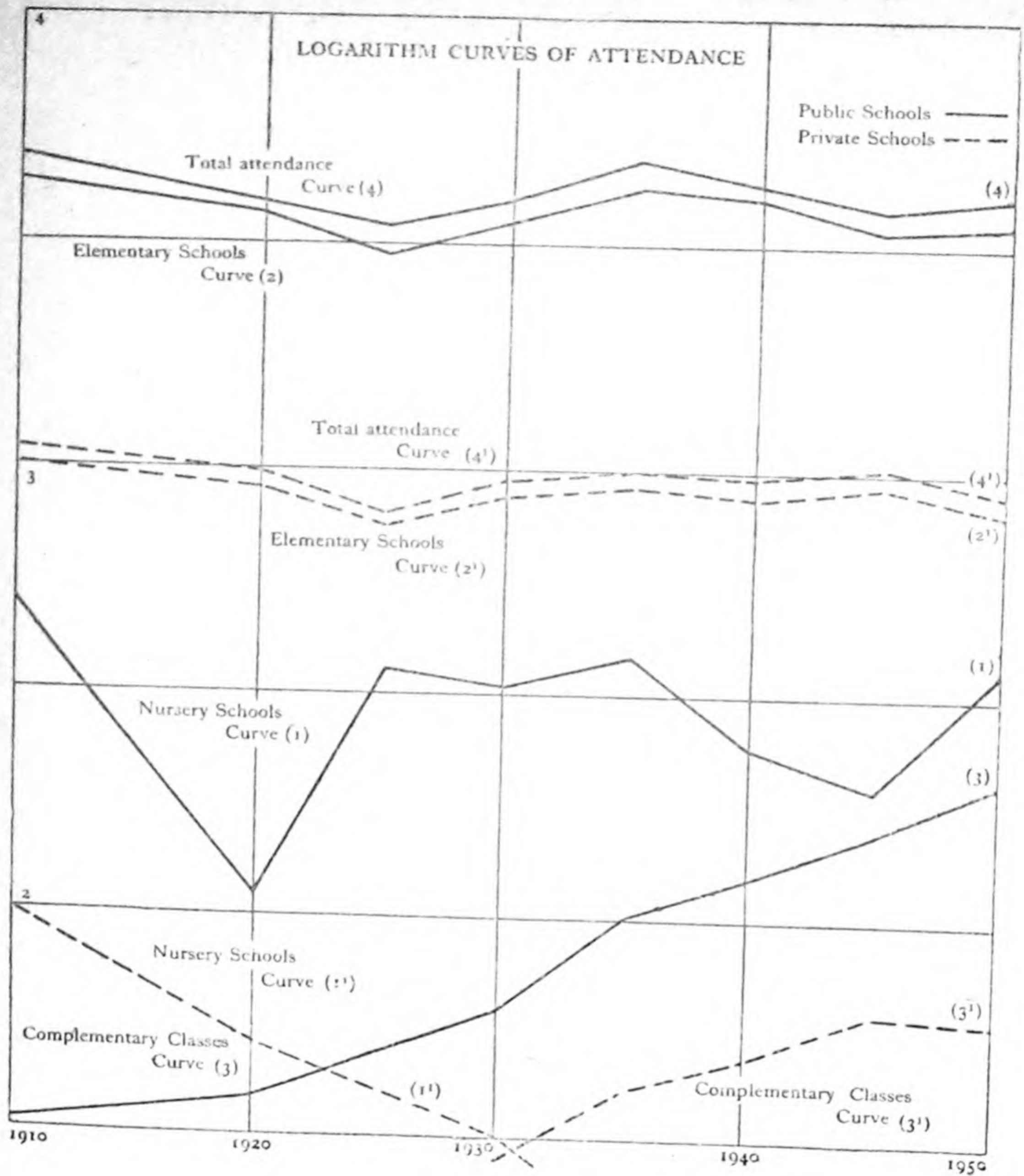
COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE



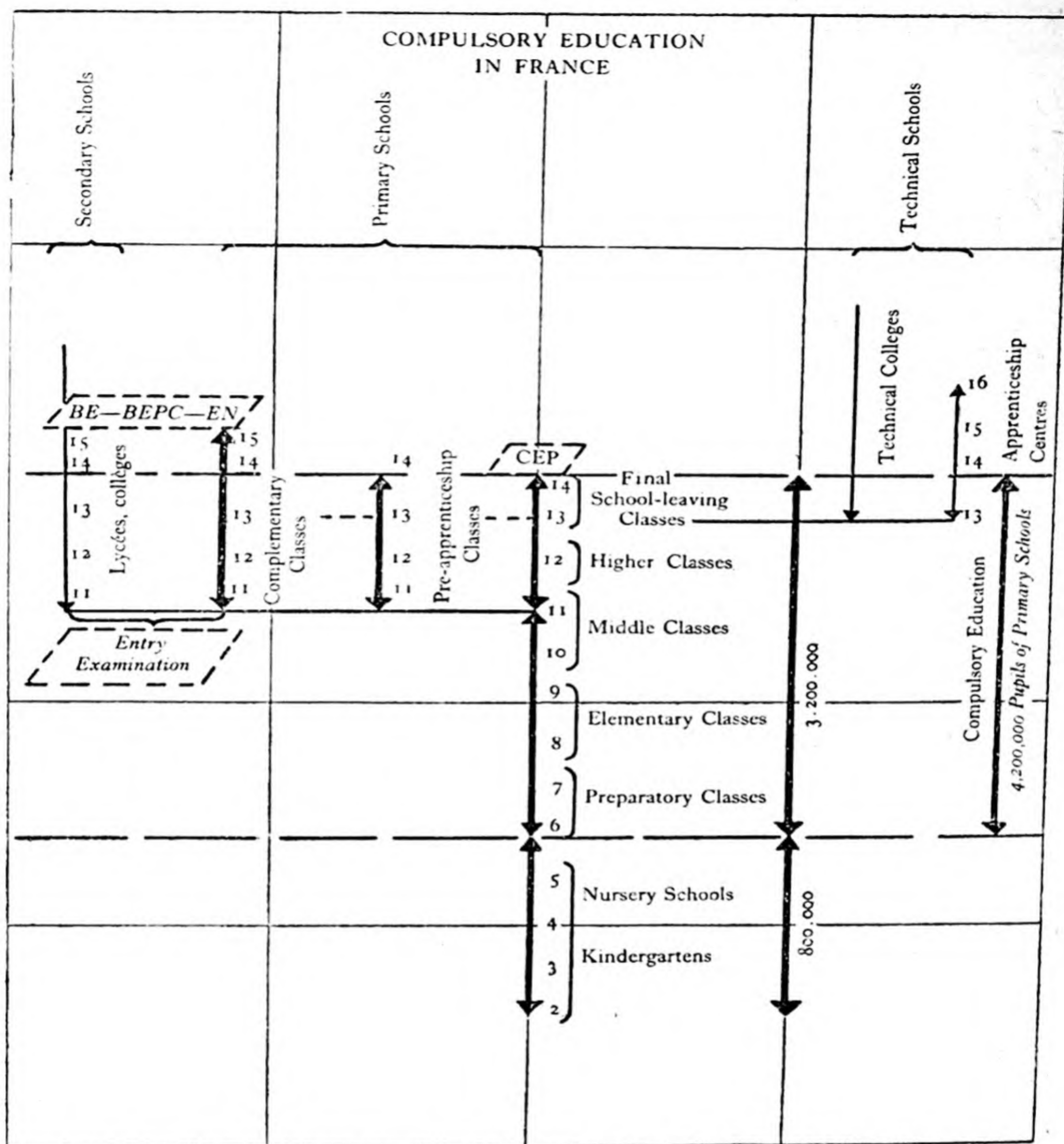


COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE





COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE



APPENDIX 1. NUMBER OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS (1949-50 School Year)

Type of school	Nursery schools	Boys' schools		Girls' schools	
		with continuation courses	without continuation courses	with continuation courses	without continuation courses
Public .	3,783	1,245	21,354	898	21,740
Private .	188	334	2,758	1,141	5,979

Type of school	Mixed schools managed by		Schools	
	male teacher	female teacher	temporary	with shortened time-table
Public .	9,328	15,131	64	73
Private .	24	783	2	8

TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

Public	73,616
Private	11,217

APPENDIX 2. NUMBER OF CLASSES IN EACH CATEGORY (1949-50 School Year)

Type of school	Primary boys' schools				Primary girls' schools			
	continuation courses	elementary classes	kindergarten classes	Total	continuation courses	elementary classes	kindergarten classes	Total
Public .	4,373	52,657	317	57,347	3,701	50,760	4,799	59,260
Private .	781	8,324	152	9,257	2,279	15,701	4,052	22,032

Type of school	Mixed schools		Total	Nursery schools
	elementary classes	kindergarten classes		
Public .	26,957	1,089	28,046	10,419
Private .	1,280	119	1,399	266

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

TOTAL NUMBER OF CLASSES

Public schools.	155,072
Private schools.	32,954

APPENDIX 3. STATISTICS OF PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS (1 January 1950)

Administrative category	Male teachers	Female teachers	Total
Established.	55,465	98,792	154,257
Trainee.	178	259	437
Temporary.	1,169	2,740	3,909
Total	56,812	101,791	158,603

Among established teachers there are:

	Men	Women
Not in charge of a school or of a continuation course	39,642	79,053
In charge of a school.	9,917	14,086
In charge of a continuation course.	4,080	4,489
In charge of domestic science teaching (urban and rural)	601	203
Combining headship of a school with additional course teaching	1,237	962

APPENDIX 4. NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS (1949-50 School Year)

	Number of enrolled pupils—ages:				Total enrolment
	under 6 years of age	6 to 11 yrs.	11 to 14 yrs.	over 14 yrs.	
Boys . .	436,752	1,099,264	586,765	76,248	2,199,029
Girls . .	403,903	994,865	538,461	86,474	2,023,703
Total . .	840,655	2,094,129	1,125,226	162,722	4,222,732

	Number of pupils attending—ages:				Total attendance
	under 6 years of age	6 to 11 yrs.	11 to 14 yrs.	over 14 yrs.	
Boys . .	349,759	1,041,540	560,641	72,526	2,024,466
Girls . .	322,840	938,633	509,549	82,768	1,853,790
Total . .	672,599	1,980,173	1,070,190	155,294	3,878,256

APPENDIX 5. NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS (1949-50 School Year)

	Number of enrolled pupils—ages:				Total enrolment
	under 6 years of age	6 to 11 yrs.	11 to 14 yrs.	over 14 yrs.	
Boys . .	85,851	167,240	94,929	17,261	365,281
Girls . .	105,420	255,514	149,238	34,611	544,783
Total . .	191,271	422,754	244,167	51,872	910,064

	Number of pupils attending—ages:				Total attendance
	under 6 years of age	6 to 11 yrs.	11 to 14 yrs.	over 14 yrs.	
Boys . .	70,589	160,270	91,821	16,519	339,199
Girls . .	87,999	243,478	143,468	33,150	508,095
Total . .	158,588	403,748	235,289	46,669	847,294

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

APPENDIX 6. EXAMINATION RESULTS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Year	Primary school-leaving certificate	
	candidates	successful
1947.	300,085	236,021
1948.	350,970	257,789
1949.	315,496	250,162

Year	Higher primary certificate ¹		Secondary first cycle certificate		Elementary certificate	
	candidates	successful	candidates	successful	candidates	successful
1946. .	39,746	15,588			65,619	28,000
1947. .	54,594	20,086			89,481	33,821
1948. .			95,093	40,795	27,767	7,709
1949. .			122,090	53,547	13,698	4,213

¹ The secondary first cycle certificate has replaced the higher primary teaching certificate and is gradually taking the place of the elementary certificate for candidates for teacher-training colleges.

Year	Training colleges		Training colleges (BAC)		Qualifying certificate	
	candidates	successful	candidates	successful	candidates	successful
1947 .					7,677	6,192
1948 .	10,826	3,540	636	288	6,483	4,840
1949 .	12,790	3,783	894	338	6,559	4,540

APPENDIX 7. EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Year	Nursery schools	Elementary schools	Continuation courses	Total	% of primary attendance
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Public Schools

1910 .	490,000	4,462,000	34,000	4,986,000	81
1920 .	111,000	3,800,000	39,000	3,950,000	80
1925 .	366,000	3,000,000	55,000	3,421,000	80
1930 .	336,000	3,700,000	61,000	4,097,000	81
1935 .	386,000	4,300,000	107,000	4,793,000	86
1940 .	240,000	4,000,000	120,000	4,360,000	81
1945 .	189,000	3,500,000	160,000	3,849,000	79
1950 .	403,000	3,627,000	192,000	4,222,000	82

Year	Nursery schools	Elementary schools	Continuation courses	Total	% of primary attendance
Private Schools					
1910. .	102,500	1,000,000	13,000	1,115,000	19
1920. .	44,800	926,000	17,000	987,800	20
1925. .	36,000	750,000	29,000	815,000	20
1930. .	32,600	876,000	28,000	936,600	19
1935. .	26,000	932,000	43,000	1,001,000	14
1940. .	18,200	903,000	50,000	971,200	19
1945. .	16,000	931,000	61,000	1,008,000	21
1950. .	23,000	828,000	59,000	910,000	18

APPENDIX 8. LOGARITHMS OF THE NUMBER OF PUPILS (in thousands).

Year	Nursery schools	Elementary schools	Continuation courses	Total
Public Schools				
1910 . .	2,690	3,649	1,531	3,697
1920 . .	2,045	3,579	1,591	3,596
1925 . .	2,563	3,477	1,740	3,534
1930 . .	2,526	3,568	1,785	3,612
1935 . .	2,586	3,633	2,029	3,680
1940 . .	2,380	3,602	2,079	3,639
1945 . .	2,276	3,544	2,204	3,585
1950 . .	2,605	3,559	2,283	3,625
Private Schools				
1910 . .	2,008	3,000	1,113	3,047
1920 . .	1,651	2,966	1,230	2,994
1925 . .	1,556	2,875	1,462	2,911
1930 . .	1,511	2,942	1,447	2,971
1935 . .	1,414	2,968	1,633	3,000
1940 . .	1,260	2,955	1,698	2,987
1945 . .	1,204	2,968	1,785	3,003
1950 . .	1,361	2,918	1,770	2,959

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

APPENDIX 9. EVOLUTION OF CONTINUATION COURSES

Year	Public schools			Private schools		
	Number of continuation courses	Number of classes	Number of pupils	Continuation courses	Number of classes	Number of pupils
1907 . .			30,000			13,000
1910 . .	985	1,250	34,000			13,000
1920 . .	1,133	1,519	39,000	923	1,349	17,000
1925 . .	1,418	2,150	55,000	989	1,670	29,000
1930 . .	1,620	2,841	61,000	1,048	1,735	28,000
1935 . .	1,733	3,620	107,000	1,172	2,080	43,000
1940 . .	1,867	4,619	120,000	1,140	2,209	50,000
1945 . .	1,980	6,410	160,000	1,491	3,032	61,000
1948 . .	2,104	7,632	192,000	1,437	2,998	59,000

APPENDIX 10. LIST OF LAWS AND DECREES GOVERNING PRIMARY EDUCATION

The following are the main texts constituting the present law with regard to primary education:

Law of 16 June 1881, relating to teachers' diplomas (recognition of all equivalent qualifications discontinued).

Law of 16 June 1881, establishing entirely free tuition in public primary schools.

Law of 28 March 1882, dealing with the obligation to attend a primary school, as amended by the laws of 11 August 1936 and 22 May 1946. It secularizes syllabuses, substituting instruction in ethics and citizenship for religious instruction (Article 1); abolishes supervision by Ministers of Religion in public schools (Article 3); and makes primary education compulsory for children of both sexes between the ages of six and thirteen (Article 4).

Law of 20 March 1883, concerning the obligation to build schools in all parish centres and in certain villages.

Law of 20 June 1885 relating to State grants for the building and acquisition of schools, as amended by the Financial Law of 26 July 1893 and by the Law of 31 July 1920.

Law of 30 October 1886 concerning the organization of primary education. Constitutional Decree and Order of 18 January 1887.

APPENDIX II. COMPULSORY EDUCATION

LAW OF 28 MARCH 1882, AS AMENDED BY THOSE OF 11 AUGUST 1936
AND 22 MAY 1946

Article 4. Primary education shall be compulsory for children of both sexes, whether French or foreign, between the ages of six and fourteen; it may be conducted in primary or secondary educational establishments; in public or private schools; or at home, by the head of the household or by any other person whom he may select.

Regulations shall be made to determine the means of providing primary instruction for deaf-and-dumb and blind children.

Article 5. The following shall not be required to attend primary schools: children attending secondary educational establishments; children attending technical or agricultural training establishments, and those enrolled as pupils in apprenticeship schools where there are courses of general instruction.

Attendance at these establishments shall be compulsory, subject to the same provisions regarding age and regularity as are applicable to children attending primary schools.

Leave of absence, not exceeding eight weeks in the year, may be granted by the Departmental Inspector of Schools, at the request of the responsible persons, to children who are at least twelve years old and who are employed on agricultural work or serving on boats engaged in sea fishing. Such leave of absence may be granted only to children who attend school regularly and whose educational attainments reach a satisfactory standard as defined by the Minister.

For the purposes of the present enactment 'the responsible persons' shall be the parents, guardian, or persons in charge of the child, whether they are caring for him at the request of the parents, guardian or other competent authority, or whether they are exercising over him regular *de facto* authority.

Article 7. In the course of the six calendar months wherein a child reaches the age of six years, the responsible persons shall, at least fifteen days before the beginning of the school term, either enrol him or her at a public or private school, or make a statement to the Mayor and the Departmental Inspector that they intend to have him or her taught at home.

In the first case, the headmaster or headmistress of the school shall issue to the responsible persons a certificate of the child's

enrolment; in the second case, the Departmental Inspector shall acknowledge receipt of the statement.

The certificate of enrolment or the acknowledgement of receipt issued by the Departmental Inspector may be required as a condition for the payment of family allowances; they shall be renewable every month.

When a family changes its place of residence, it shall, within the week following its arrival at its new address, carry out the formalities specified in the first paragraph of this Article. In support of the request for the child's enrolment at a public or a private school, it shall produce the school record issued in accordance with the terms of Article 10 below.

Families living in the vicinity of two or more public schools shall be entitled to enrol their children at any one of those schools, whether or not it is within the bounds of their own commune, provided, however, that the number of pupils enrolled has not already reached the maximum authorized by the regulations.

Nevertheless, in communes which have several State schools, each serving an area determined by order of the Mayor, families shall conform to the provisions of any such order.

In case of dispute, the Departmental Council, at the request either of the Mayor or of the persons responsible for the child, shall give a decision which shall be final.

When there are, in any town or village, several primary schools for boys or girls, pupils shall be enrolled at public or private schools on presentation of a certificate of registration on the school list referred to in the following article. This certificate shall be issued by the Mayor, who shall indicate thereon which school the child is to attend.

Article 8. At the beginning of each school year, the Mayor shall draw up a list of all children resident in his commune who are subject to the provisions regarding compulsory school attendance.

The responsible persons shall be obliged to have all children in their charge registered on that list. The list shall include the child's surname, christian names, date and place of birth; and the surnames, christian names, domicile and profession of the persons responsible for him.

The school lists shall be brought up to date on the first day of each month.

To facilitate the preparation of these lists and keep them up to date, the headmasters and headmistresses of public and private establishments shall be required, within a week after the beginning of the school term, to provide the Mayor with a return list of all children attending their establishments. Changes in the list shall

be forwarded to the municipal offices on the twentieth day of each month.

Municipal councillors, district school superintendents, social welfare workers, school welfare officers, teachers, representatives of the law, the Departmental Inspector or his representative shall be entitled to examine and copy, in the municipal offices, the list of children of school age. Omissions shall be reported to the Mayor, who shall acknowledge receipt.

Article 9. The Mayor shall inform, without delay, the Departmental Inspector of any infringements to the provisions of Article 7 above. The following shall also be authorized to report infringements to the Departmental Inspector: municipal councillors, district school superintendents, teachers, social welfare workers, school welfare officers, and representatives of the law, after the lapse of one month from the issue of the warning, if with no effect.

The Departmental Inspector shall request the persons responsible for the child to comply with the law, and shall inform them of the provisions of Article 12 below.

Article 10. When a child is temporarily absent from school, the responsible persons shall, without delay, inform the headmaster or headmistress of the educational establishment concerned of the reasons for his absence.

Teachers in public and private schools, and the headmasters and headmistresses of the educational establishments referred to in the second and third sub-paragraphs of Article 5, shall keep a register on which the absences of enrolled pupils shall be noted for each class. Any case of absence shall immediately be reported to the persons responsible for the child, who shall, within forty-eight hours, supply an explanation.

At the end of every month, the head of the educational establishment, or the teacher, shall transmit to the responsible persons a school record book in which the child's absences from school and the reasons given shall be noted, together with the marks he has obtained. This record shall be signed by the addressees and returned, with any explanations they may wish to make.

At the end of each term, a statement shall be sent to the Departmental Inspector, indicating the number of cases of absence and the explanations given.

The following are the only reasons which shall be deemed admissible: that the child is ill, that a member of the family is suffering from an infectious or contagious disease; an important family meeting; impossibility of reaching school as a result of interrupted communications; temporary absence of the responsible

persons when accompanied by the children. The Departmental Inspector shall decide whether other reasons can be accepted. He may consult social welfare workers approved by him for the purpose, and may instruct them to conduct enquiries with regard to children presumed to be refractory.

The Departmental Inspector shall issue a warning to the persons responsible for the child and shall remind them of the provisions of Article 12 below, in the following cases:

- (1) When, in spite of the request of the headmaster or headmistress of the educational establishment, they have failed to give any reason for the child's absence or have given false excuses.
- (2) When the child has failed to attend school, without due reason or proper excuse, for a minimum of half a day on four occasions during the month.

Article 11. Any teacher in a public school, or the head of any public educational establishment, who fails to conform with the provisions of this law shall, at the instance of the Departmental Inspector, be reported to the Divisional Educational Council (*Conseil académique*) or to the Departmental Council, for the appropriate disciplinary action applicable to teachers employed in public schools.

Any teacher in a private school, or the head of any private educational establishment, who, in spite of a written warning from the Departmental Inspector, fails to conform to the provisions of this law shall, at the instance of the Departmental Inspector, be reported to the Divisional Educational Council or to the Departmental Council, which may impose the following penalties: (a) censure or suspension for a maximum of a month; (b) in the event of a further offence during one school year, prohibition from teaching, either permanently or for a stated period.

Article 12. The penalties set forth in Article 475 of the Penal Code shall be applicable to:

- (1) Persons responsible for a child who fail, without reasonable excuse, to enrol the child at a public or private school, within a week from the date of a warning issued by the Departmental Inspector, or to deposit with the Departmental Inspector a statement that they intend to have him taught at home.
- (2) Responsible persons who, without reasonable excuse, fail within a week from the date of a warning issued by the Departmental Inspector, to fulfil this formality in the event of a change of residence or in respect of other children.
- (3) Responsible persons who, after the issue of a warning by the Departmental Inspector, persist in failing to explain the reasons for a child's absence, or give false reasons, or allow the child to

stay away from school without due reason or proper excuse, for at least half a day on four occasions during one month.

If, within the twelve months following, a second offence occurs, the responsible persons shall, without the necessity of further warning, be brought again before the police court, and may have imposed upon them the penalties provided by the first paragraph of Article 478 in the Penal Code.

If, within the twelve months following, a third offence occurs, the responsible persons shall, without the necessity of further warning, be brought before a court of summary jurisdiction, and may have imposed upon them the penalties laid down in paragraph 2 of Article 478 in the Penal Code.

On summary conviction, the court may also prohibit these persons from exercising in whole or in part, and for a minimum of one year and a maximum of five years, their civic, civil and family rights as set forth in Article 42 of the Penal Code.

If, in spite of convictions under the terms of this Article, the child continues to be absent from school, the provisions of paragraph 6 of Article 2 of the Law of 24 July 1889, as supplemented by that of 16 November 1921, and the provisions of Article 16 of the Decree of 29 July 1939, may be applied to the persons concerned.

Proceedings in respect of offences covered by the terms of this Article shall be instituted by the Public Prosecutor at the instance of the Departmental Inspector.

Article 13. When a child of school age is found by a representative of the law in the street, in a place of entertainment or in a public place during school hours, without valid reasons, he shall immediately be taken to the school or educational establishment at which he is enrolled or, if the statement prescribed by Article 7 above has not been produced, to the nearest State school.

The headmaster or headmistress of the school shall inform the Departmental Inspector without delay.

Article 14. The penalties provided by Article 475 and, in the event of a further offence, by Article 478, paragraph 1, in the Penal Code shall be applicable to:

- (1) Anyone who, during school hours, admits a child of school age to a place of entertainment or a public place.
- (2) Anyone who habitually employs in his service, during school hours, a child who is subject to school attendance regulations.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall not apply to the principal, heads or managers of the establishments listed in Article 1 of Book II of the *Code du Travail* (labour code) to whom that Article alone shall be applicable.

Proceedings in respect of offences covered by the terms of this Article shall be instituted by the Public Prosecutor, at the instance of the Departmental Inspector.

Article 15. These provisions are without prejudice to the rules of common law governing the possibilities of appeal and the application of the First Offenders Act. Article 463 of the Penal Code shall be applicable in all cases.

Article 16. In respect of children receiving instruction at home, a summary enquiry shall, on their reaching the ages of eight, ten and twelve, be conducted by the competent municipal authorities, with the sole purpose of establishing what reasons are advanced by the responsible persons, and whether the children are receiving such instruction as the state of their health and the family's circumstances allow. The result of such enquiries shall be reported to the Inspector of Primary Schools.

The latter may request the Departmental Inspector to appoint suitable persons to examine the physical and intellectual condition of the child concerned. These persons may examine him on the rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic and, where appropriate, may suggest to the competent authority such measures as they deem necessary when the child is found to be illiterate.

Notification of their report shall be transmitted to the responsible persons, with an indication of the limit of time within which they are required to furnish their explanations or to improve the situation, and of the penalties to which they will become liable, under the terms of this law, in the event of their failure to do so.

Article 17. School Funds, in accordance with the provisions of Article 15 of the Law of 10 April 1867, shall be established in all parishes.

Article 18. Ministerial Orders shall be issued each year at the request of the Departmental Inspectors and Departmental Councils, to determine the parishes to which, by reason of the shortage of school premises, the provisions of Article 4 and the following Articles regarding compulsory schooling cannot be applied.

A list of the communes to which the provisions of this Article have been applied shall be included in an annual report submitted to Parliament by the Minister of Education.

APPENDIX 12. FAMILY ALLOWANCES

INTER-DEPARTMENTAL CIRCULAR NO. 9955, DATED 22 APRIL 1949

In accordance with the terms of Article 20 of the Decree of 10 December 1946, setting out the administrative regulations for the application of the law of 22 August 1946, specifying the rules for the payment of family allowances, the bodies responsible for the payment of these allowances shall make payment subject to the following conditions:

In respect of children of school age, on presentation either of a certificate of enrolment at an educational establishment or of a certificate issued by the Departmental Inspector, stating that the child is receiving instruction at home, or of a medical certificate stating that the child is unable to attend regularly at an educational establishment by reason of illness.

In respect of children continuing their education beyond the school-leaving age, on presentation of a certificate of enrolment issued by the principal of an establishment of higher education, or of a secondary, technical or vocational training school.

In both cases, as entitlement to the payment of the allowances is subject to the regular attendance of the pupils, the object of this circular, which has been prepared jointly by the Departments of Education, Public Health and Population, Finance and Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Labour, and Social Security, is to determine the appropriate criteria of regular attendance, and the procedure for checking regularity of attendance.

I. *Children of School Age*

- (a) *Certificate of Enrolment.* In accordance with the provisions of Article 7 (Law of 22 May 1946) concerning the means of enforcing compulsory school attendance, the headmasters and headmistresses of schools shall, at the commencement of the school year, issue to the parents of their pupils certificates of the children's enrolment.

This certificate of enrolment, which is required to obtain payment of family allowances, shall be addressed, by the parents, to the family allowance office or other body under which they come.

It should be noted that these certificates of enrolment may be issued by the headmasters or headmistresses of schools on unstamped paper; family allowance organizations are, however recommended to obtain for the parents of pupils, at the

beginning of the school year, a *certificate of enrolment for each child*, including the title and address of the family allowance office, and such other particulars as may be deemed necessary.

- (b) *Supervision of attendance.* At the end of each month, a list of children whose attendance has not been regular, or whose names have been removed from the roll of the establishment, shall be drawn up by the headmasters and headmistresses of schools; these lists shall be forwarded, at the beginning of the following month, to the Inspector of Primary Schools, who shall be responsible for transmitting them to the family allowance offices.

If these lists of children whose attendance is unsatisfactory are sent in to the family allowance offices without delay, the latter will be able to refuse payment of family allowances to the parents of pupils whose names appear on the lists for the month following that in which attendance is unsatisfactory.

It is important, firstly, that disciplinary action for irregular attendance should be taken immediately, if it is to have its full effect; and, secondly, that payment should be made as soon as the pupil resumes regular attendance.

Payment of family allowances shall be refused to parents whose children have failed to attend school, without due reason or valid excuse, *for at least half a day on four occasions* during one month.

As Article 20 of the Decree of 10 December 1946 specifies that entitlement to family allowances is subject to regular attendance at school, it should be noted that family allowance offices are required to *cancel*, not merely defer, the payment of allowances to parents for every month during which their children have been absent for half a day on four occasions under the terms of Article 10 of the law of 22 May 1946, quoted above.

Finally, it should be remembered that these provisions apply equally to public and private schools, both types being subject to the same obligations.

For this purpose, private primary schools are subject to inspection by the authorities specified in Article 9 of the law of 30 October 1886, with the object of ensuring that these establishments duly fulfil the obligations imposed by the law of 28 March 1882, as amended by the law of 22 May 1946.

II. *Children Continuing their Education beyond the School-Leaving Age*

As in the case of children of school age, parents are required to address to the appropriate family allowance offices, a certificate of

enrolment issued by the head of the establishment in which their children are continuing their education.

Moreover:

- (a) In the case of children continuing their education at secondary, technical or vocational training schools, the heads of these establishments shall send in, through the Departmental Inspectors, lists of pupils whose attendance is unsatisfactory in the same way as for children of school age.
- (b) In the case of children pursuing their studies at institutions of higher education, the principals of these establishments may usefully supply the family allowance offices with similar lists of students whose attendance is unsatisfactory.

Nevertheless, in recognition of the special difficulties of checking the attendance of students enrolled in the faculties of universities, the deans of these faculties are merely advised to report particularly flagrant cases to the bodies responsible for paying family allowances whenever possible.

III. *Children Pursuing Correspondence Courses*

In accordance with the provisions of Circular No. 112 SS of 3 April 1947, setting forth instructions for the application of the law of 22 August 1946, which establishes the rules for the payment of family allowances, the parents of pupils pursuing their studies by correspondence shall not be entitled to receive allowances.

Nevertheless, as entitlement to allowances may continue in certain exceptional cases, with the approval of the Departmental Commission for which provision is made in Article 3 of the Decree of 10 December 1946, when the courses in question offer the required guarantees with regard to further education, the members of the Departmental Commission shall request the advice of the appropriate Departmental Inspector, who alone can form an opinion on whether the courses in question are equivalent to the instruction normally given in the schools, whether the establishment providing the courses offers adequate guarantees, and whether the child is pursuing his studies in such circumstances that he may be treated on the same basis as a pupil or student in ordinary circumstances.

IV. *Children Receiving Instruction at Home*

A certificate issued by the appropriate Departmental Inspector, which shall be renewable every month, shall be sent by the family to the family allowance office concerned, stating that the child is in fact receiving instruction comparable with that normally given in the schools.

V. Children Unable to Attend an Educational Establishment by Reason of Illness

A medical certificate, issued by the family doctor, which may be checked by an officially approved doctor, shall be exacted from the families by the family allowance offices concerned; these certificates shall be renewed quarterly.

APPENDIX 13. ADJUSTMENT SCHOOLS AND CLASSES FOR BACKWARD CHILDREN

LAW OF 1909

Article 1. At the request of the communes and departments, the following institutions may be set up for backward boys and girls:
(a) adjustment classes attached to public elementary schools;
(b) separate adjustment schools, which may include arrangements for day boarding and full boarding.

The above classes and schools shall form part of the public primary education system.

Article 2. Adjustment classes attached to schools shall admit children from six to thirteen years of age.

In separate adjustment schools, instruction may be continued up to the age of sixteen, and shall include both primary education and vocational training.

Pupils attending adjustment classes who, on approaching the age of thirteen, are obviously incapable of learning a profession elsewhere, may be admitted to the adjustment schools.

Children who are too backward to be educated at home should preferably attend as full boarders.

Article 3. No adjustment class shall be attended simultaneously by children of both sexes.

In adjustment schools there may be two distinct sections, one for boys and one for girls, under a single administration.

Article 4. The amount of the subsidy granted by the State to cover the costs of installation, adaptation and extension of adjustment schools and classes shall be fixed in the proportions laid down by Article 7 of the law of 20 June 1885.

The necessary works shall be carried out in accordance with plans approved by the Minister of Education and properly authorized.

Article 5. The ordinary costs of adjustment schools and classes shall be borne by the communes and departments that established them, subject to deduction of grants made by other departments and communes.

The cost of the instruction given shall be borne by the State, in the same conditions as for elementary and senior primary schools.

Article 6. An adjustment school may be established by one commune on the territory of another commune, provided that both parties are agreed on the subject.

In cases where adjustment schools are not situated in the same department or commune as the departmental or communal administration by which they were established, power to exercise the functions conferred by educational legislation shall, subject to the provisions of Article 11 of the present law, be vested in the authorities of the department or commune in which the said administration is situated.

Article 7. Headmasters and mistresses and male and female teachers on the staff of adjustment schools and classes shall enjoy the same rights and privileges as members of the staff of public elementary schools.

They may carry out the duties of house ushers in the boarding-schools.

Headmasters and mistresses shall be appointed by the Minister.

The teachers shall be nominated by the Departmental Inspector and appointed by the Prefect. They should preferably be chosen from among candidates holding the special diploma for the teaching of backward children.

The house ushers in departmental boarding-schools shall be nominated by the Head of the establishment and appointed by the Prefect.

Article 8. In addition to their regular salary, members of the staff of special schools and classes shall receive financial or other compensation for the extra duties they are required to carry out.

Those holding the special diploma for the teaching of backward children shall, whilst teaching in adjustment schools or classes, receive extra salary, which shall be subject to deductions for pension purposes.

Article 9. The Ministry's decision establishing a special school or class shall determine in each case the special conditions governing its organization and work, in particular: (a) the maximum number of pupils to be admitted to each division; (b) the number of school days per week, and time taken up daily by classes and exercises; (c) the conditions in which women teachers may be attached to the various classes and sections of the establishment.

Article 10. Special schools catering for boarders and day-boarders may be administered direct by the department or commune; they may be administered by the headmaster or mistress by virtue of an agreement transferring the administration to the Head of the establishment, who assumes responsibility at his or her own risk.

Such agreements shall not be carried into effect until they have been approved by the Minister of Education after consultation with the Prefects. The same shall apply to any changes made in the agreements.

The maximum amounts payable by families and endowment institutions to defray the costs of boarding and day-boarding in each school shall be fixed by the Minister of Education upon the proposal of the municipal or departmental council, after consultation with the Prefect.

Article 11. Adjustment schools and classes shall be subject to: (a) An inspection carried out in accordance with Article 9 of the Law of 30 October 1886; (b) A medical inspection organized by the communes and departments by which such schools and classes were set up. Every child shall be subject to this inspection and shall be examined at least once during each semester. The results of the examination shall be noted in each child's school and health book.

Article 12. A committee, consisting of the Primary School Inspector, a headmaster or teacher of a special school and a doctor, shall decide which children cannot be admitted to or allowed to remain in the public primary schools, and may authorize their admission to an special school or class unless they are to receive instruction at home.

The child's family shall always be invited to be represented at the examination.

Article 13. A school committee shall be set up for each special school. Its members shall be appointed by the Minister of Education after consultation with the Prefect and, if the school is communal, with the Mayor.

This committee must include some women members.

An administrative board, appointed by the municipal council in the case of a communal school or by the departmental council in the case of a departmental school, shall be set up for each special school. Its membership shall always include a representative of the Minister of Education, a representative of the Prefect of the department in which the school is situated, and at least one doctor.

Article 14. The school curricula and the conditions in which the special certificate may be obtained shall be laid down by special decrees and orders, in accordance with the advice of the Higher Council of Education.

APPENDIX 14. SECULARITY

LAWS OF 28 MARCH 1882 AND 9 DECEMBER 1905

The Law of 28 March 1882 provides:

Article 1. Primary teaching shall include: instruction in ethics and civics; reading and writing; the French language and elements of French literature; geography, with particular reference to France; history, up to the present day, with particular reference to France; a working knowledge of law and political economy; the elements of natural science, physics and mathematics; their application to agriculture, hygiene and the industrial arts; manual work and the use of the tools required in the principal trades; the elements of drawing, modelling and music; gymnastics; drill for boys, needle-work for girls. Article 23 of the Law of 15 March 1850 is hereby annulled.

Article 2. Public primary schools shall close one day in the week, besides Sundays, to enable parents who so desire to see that their children receive religious instruction outside the school.

Religious instruction shall be optional in private schools.

Article 3. The provisions of Articles 18 and 44 of the Law of 15 March 1850 are hereby annulled, in so far as they give Ministers of religion the right of inspection, supervision and direction in public and private primary schools and in infant schools. Paragraph 2 of Article 31 of the same law, under which the ecclesiastical

authorities have the right to nominate non-Catholic teachers, is also annulled.

The Law of 9 December 1905 extends the above provisions by the following Article:

Article 30. In accordance with the provisions of Article 2 of the Law of 28 March 1882, children of six to thirteen years of age attending public schools, may only receive religious instruction outside school hours.

Ministers of religion breaking the foregoing rule shall be liable to the sanctions provided for in Article 14 of the above-mentioned law.

(Under the aforesaid Article 11, anyone who has employed a child of school age during school hours shall be punished as an accomplice of the person responsible for that child's absence from school.)

Provision is made for an exception to the above rule, under Article 5 of the Order of 18 January 1887: 'During the week previous to the first communion, however, teachers shall authorize their pupils to leave school at the times when their religious duties require their presence at Church.'

The actual school premises should be free from any religious association. The Law of 1882 forbids them to be used for classes in religious instruction. Moreover, a circular dated 9 April 1903 recalls that 'no sort of religious emblems (crucifixes, pictures, statues) shall appear in school buildings'.

The official instructions of 17 January 1887 define as follows the duties of teachers with regard to instruction in ethics:

'This aspect of education, like others, is entrusted to the teacher as a representative of society. Secular and democratic society is deeply concerned that all its members shall acquire at an early age, through lessons that will make a lasting impression, a consciousness of their dignity as human beings, and of their individual responsibility.

'For this purpose, the teacher has no need to embark on a full course of instruction in ethics followed by lessons on their application in practice, as though he were dealing with children who had never heard of good and evil. Most of his pupils, on the contrary, will already have received or be receiving religious instruction and will thus be familiar with the idea of a God who is Creator of the Universe and Father of all men, together with the traditions, beliefs and practices of the Christian or Jewish faith. Through that faith, and in the forms peculiar to it, they will already be aware of the fundamental ideas underlying ethics at all times and in all

places. But these ideas are as yet like freshly sown seeds in their minds; they have not penetrated deeply; they are fugitive and confused, known superficially rather than fully grasped, a matter of mere memory rather than of true awareness in those young minds. If they are to grow and ripen, they must be given the proper care. And that care is in the hands of the public school teacher.

'His mission is thus clear. He will strengthen and firmly implant in the hearts of his pupils, by making them the rule of daily life, the fundamental principles of ethics, which are common to all doctrines and indispensable to all civilized peoples. He can carry out his task whilst observing a strict neutrality towards the religious beliefs of his pupils, with which they naturally associate the general principles of ethics.

'He takes the children as they come, with their individual ideas, their language, the beliefs they have inherited from their families; and his sole aim is to teach them to draw from those beliefs their greatest gift to human society: the precepts of an ethical code of behaviour.

'Object and limits of secular teaching. Thus secular instruction, whilst differing from religious instruction, does not contradict it. The teacher does not replace either the priest or the parent; he works with them to make of the child an upright man. He should dwell on the duties that unite men, not on the dogmas that divide them. He must obviously refrain from taking part in theological or philosophical discussions, on account of his duties, of the tender age of his pupils and of the trust placed in him both by their families and by the State. All his effort will be concentrated on a problem which, though different, is no less difficult, from the very fact that it belongs to the realm of practice: i.e., the problem of giving children a grounding in practical ethics.

'Later on, as mature citizens, they may be divided by theological opinions. But they will at least agree in practice to place their aim in life as high as possible; they will have the same detestation of all that is base, the same admiration for what is fine, the same scrupulousness in their understanding of their duty; they will strive to live in accordance with the highest principles, at the cost of whatever effort; to feel themselves united in a general striving after the good, the beautiful, the true: surely one expression—and not the least pure—of the religious sense.'

APPENDIX 15. THE 'COURS COMPLÉMENTAIRES' (CONTINUATION CLASSES)

REGULATIONS OF 1938

... It should be emphasized that these classes, which are part of the primary education system and are intended to round off the latter, cannot be considered as a refuge for children incapable of doing anything else. They are attended by many excellent pupils who, for various reasons, are not going on to a secondary school or even following the additional course of studies. It may be reckoned that, in the whole of France in recent years, of seven children thirteen years old leaving the public schools, only one went on to the beginning class in a secondary school or started on an additional course. The lesson of these figures must not be overlooked. The finishing classes are intended for the majority of pupils, and among this majority are a number of intellectually gifted children. Particular care should therefore be bestowed on them.

Previous circulars have excellently defined their spirit. More than all other classes in public schools, the finishing classes prepare the pupil to take his place in the world. He is taught to be actively useful, both in his own interests and in those of his fellows, in his normal environment. These classes thus seek to impart a twofold culture, at the same time humanistic and practical. General culture is the same for all children throughout France. The practical aspect, however, is adapted to the milieu (whether rural or urban, industrial or agricultural), and even to the district. It is hoped that young men will thereby become more firmly attached to their native environment.

Education would fail in its purpose if a prolongation of the time spent at school were to result in the child's being drawn away from its normal surroundings. Children are only too vulnerable to certain attractions. A keener awareness of their links with all that is around them is surely calculated to strengthen those links, not to make them irksome. This has led us to introduce into the curricula a measure of flexibility, allowing of adaptation to local requirements. Finishing classes in all schools should take account of the original features of the district in which they are situated. In accordance with special instructions to be found at various points in the curricula, a choice should be made at the beginning of the year of the subjects under the different headings likely to be most useful in any particular district.

In every class of the primary school, the instruction given should be essentially practical. This is particularly true of continuation

classes, where instruction should be both practical and active: in 'active' teaching, frequent calls are made on the initiative of the individual pupil and of the class as a whole. In many cases, the teacher will be obliged by circumstances to adopt this course. In schools with only one classroom, where there are difficulties (which we trust will be overcome in time) in the way of the formation of inter-communal classes, and only one section—sometimes mixed—can be constituted in the whole school, nothing can be done without the active co-operation of the children. In this respect, no advice or suggestions regarding methods are given here, as we consider it wiser to leave full latitude to the imagination of the teachers.

This aspect of education affords great opportunities for the development of the tendency towards a reform in teaching methods which is noticeable in many countries—a tendency, in fact, to revert to the fundamental principles on which our State schools are based.

APPENDIX 16. DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

REGULATIONS OF 16 MAY 1922

Following the definition of the functions of District Superintendents by the decree of 31 December 1921, it appears desirable to combine in a single document the legal provisions and regulations determining the rights and duties of these valuable assistants in departmental administration.

I should be glad if you would bring these regulations to the notice of the Superintendents in your district by publishing them in your departmental Bulletin of Primary Education.

I would ask you to draw the particular attention of District Superintendents and Primary School Inspectors to Article 16 of the said regulations. This Article reproduces the new text of Article 140 of the Decree of 18 January 1887, as amended by the above-mentioned Decree of 31 December last. It clearly defines the duties of District Superintendents, with a wealth of detail that emphasizes their importance. The functions and powers of the Superintendents are carefully distinguished from those of Mayors and Departmental Councillors, who are also legally entitled to exercise supervision over schools. In particular, District Superintendents have the right to be present at lessons in class and to look at the pupils' exercises. The Superintendent is chosen from among the

friends of the school, and should so carry out his duties that he is always a welcome visitor there. This is the gist of the amendment made to the previous regulations by the Decree of 31 December 1921.

I have no doubt that the work done by District Superintendents in accordance with the above-mentioned regulations will be of the greatest benefit to schools.

I. *Recruitment*

- (a) The Departmental Councils shall nominate one or more District Superintendents for each district, to exercise supervision over public and private schools (Law of 30 October 1886, Article 52, Circulars of 10 January 1900 and 5 January 1920).
- (b) They shall be appointed for three years, be re-eligible, and subject to dismissal at any time (Constitutional Law, Article 52).
- (c) They must satisfy the following conditions: (1) be French citizens; (2) be not less than twenty-five years of age; (3) reside in the district (Decree of 18 January 1887, Article 136, together with the Constitutional Law, Article 52).
- (d) They must moreover be genuinely interested in public education, must not consider their appointment as purely honorary, and must provide practical proof of their sincere devotion to the University (Ministerial Circular of 10 January 1900).
- (e) No Head or teacher in any institution of primary education may be a District Superintendent (decree of 18 January 1887, Article 137).
- (f) Women may be appointed as District Superintendents (statement made by the Minister of Education at the meeting of the Senate on 29 March 1886; Ministerial Circulars of 1 March and 10 July 1912, 3 March 1914, 5 July 1920).
- (g) The grounds of ineligibility and incompatibility established by Articles 32, 33 and 34 of the Law of 5 April 1884 are applicable to members of the District Superintendencies (Constitutional Law, Article 57).

II. *Working arrangements for District Superintendencies*

- (a) The District Superintendents shall meet at least once every three months in the chief town of the district. They shall elect a Chairman from among their number (Constitutional Law, Article 52).
- (b) At Paris, the Superintendents, appointed for each arrondissement by the Departmental Council, shall meet at least once a

month, under the Chairmanship of the Mayor or one of his deputies appointed by himself.

- (c) The Primary School Inspectors shall attend the meetings of District Superintendents and shall have the right to speak (Constitutional Law, Article 129).

III. *Functions*

A. *Collective Functions*

- (a) The District Superintendencies shall advise the Departmental Council; they shall discuss all matters relating to the superintendence of schools, with which they have been entrusted by law (Constitutional Law, Article 52).
- (b) They may be consulted with regard to the suitability of the premises provided by communes, in accordance with their obligations, for their public schools; the number of schools to be set up in communes; the advisability of establishing schools in hamlets; and requests for the creation of posts of male and female assistant teachers (Decree of 18 January 1887, Article 139).
- (c) The opinion of the District Superintendency must be sought by the Prefect with regard to the institution or abolition of a school or class, in cases where the Municipal Council's opinion is unfavourable or where the latter has given no opinion (Decree of 7 April 1887, Articles 4 and 21).

B. *Individual Functions*

- (a) The chief duty of District Superintendents shall be to inspect the public and private schools in their districts. They shall be authorized to visit only those schools that have been specially placed under their supervision by the Departmental Council (Constitutional Law, Articles 9 and 52; Constitutional Decree, Article 138; Circular of 25 March 1887).
- (b) Every District Superintendent shall correspond both with the Departmental Council, to which he should send his reports, and with the local authorities, concerning all matters relating to the condition and needs of primary teaching in his district (Constitutional Law, Article 52).
He shall communicate to the Primary School Inspector any useful information that he has collected (Constitutional Decree, Article 138).
- (c) In public schools, the District Superintendent shall inspect the premises, heating, lighting, school furniture, teaching materials,

hygienic conditions, school attendance, regularity and behaviour of pupils.

The District Superintendent is not required to give an opinion on the methods or results of the teaching given, nor on educational organization in the school he is inspecting. He may be present during lessons in class and look at the pupils' exercises (Decree of 31 December 1921). In private schools, the District Superintendent shall inspect the standard of morality, hygiene, sanitation, and the extent to which the schools are complying with the obligations imposed on them by the Law of 28 March 1882. He shall only inspect the teaching in so far as this is necessary to ensure that it is not contrary to morality or to the Constitution or the Law (Constitutional Law, Article 9).

- (e) Every District Superintendent may, if he is not a member of the Departmental Council, attend the meetings of the latter, with the right to speak on all matters concerning the schools in his district (Constitutional Law, Article 52).
- (f) Every School Committee must include one or more District Superintendents among its members (Constitutional Law, Articles 53 and 55).
- (g) A District Superintendent shall serve on the Board appointed to examine children who are receiving instruction at home (Law of 28 March 1882, Article 16).
- (h) The Sub-Committees of the Board appointed to examine candidates for the school leaving certificate may include a District Superintendent (Constitutional Decree, Article 255).
- (i) A District Superintendent shall serve on the administrative committee of the library in every school placed under his superintendence (Decree of 15 December 1915, Article 7).
- (j) The District Superintendent shall encourage all activities designed to improve school attendance : school funds, school canteens, etc. (Minister's Circular of 5 July 1920).
- (k) He shall endeavour to secure the upkeep of school premises and the expansion of school collections (Minister's Circular of 5 July 1920).
- (l) He shall encourage the development of additional school activities: classes for adults, lectures, teachers' associations, parents' associations, etc. (Circular of 5 July 1920).

CIRCULAR OF 5 DECEMBER 1924

Although the time has not yet come to replace the present District Superintendents, I think it timely to remind you of the principles

on which the choice of new superintendents must be based, as the Departmental Councils may have to fill vacancies.

First of all, as one of my predecessors, Mr. Georges Leygues, wrote to you on 10 January 1900, District Superintendents 'must be genuinely interested in public education . . . and must provide practical proof of their devotion to the University'. The recommendation made at that time that the Departmental Council should not nominate 'persons who send their children to institutions competing with public schools or who sponsor such institutions' still holds good. It must be acknowledged in principle that a father who sends his children to private schools does not show sufficient confidence in public education to enable us to rely on his active co-operation. I am aware that special circumstances, e.g., family reasons, may sometimes oblige fathers to send one or more of their children to private schools, but these exceptional cases would only justify the waiving of the above rule if the persons concerned gave definite proof of their interest in the secular school. But there is no room for doubt in the case of candidates for the posts of District Superintendent who sponsor institutions competing with public schools, and we must include in this category all those who, in their communes, have at any time supported or voted for measures designed to bring about what is called the proportional distribution of schools.

It is not enough for District Superintendents to be friendly towards the schools; they must give proof of that friendship. It would be unsuitable to appoint as District Superintendents persons whose occupations did not leave them sufficient leisure time to enable them to take an active interest in public schools. It would be unfair to entrust to the care of a Superintendent a school situated far from his home, for his influence, particularly with regard to school attendance, can only be effective if he has to do with families with which he is intimately acquainted and which he sees every day, that is, families living in his own commune or immediate district.

District Superintendents are valuable collaborators in public education. Through their help, school attendance can be ensured on the best possible basis. Their talks with families and their friendly advice are often more effective than the fear of penalties imposed by the law. Nor does their influence stop here; it extends to all matters connected with the hygienic conditions on the school premises, the material equipment of classrooms, scientific apparatus, libraries, and all the additional school activities.

It is therefore essential that they should be chosen exclusively from among persons who can give proof of a genuine and active interest in national education.

APPENDIX 17. DEPARTMENTAL COUNCIL AND JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE COMMISSIONS

Departmental Councils were set by under the Law of 30 October 1886 (Article 44), amended by the Law of 14 July 1901.

Departmental Councils are competent to deal with all matters relating to the staff of public and private elementary primary schools and with all questions arising from relationships between schools and municipalities.

The powers of Departmental Councils therefore cover not only those of Joint Administrative Commissions and Joint Technical Committees, but they are also responsible for ensuring that municipalities apply the clauses of organic laws relating to public and private primary schools.

With regard to staff, Departmental Councils have all the powers devolving upon Joint Administrative Commissions (confirmation of appointments, Law of 30.10.1886, Articles 23 and 27—promotions, Decree of 17.7.1895, Law of 19.7.1889, Article 40—discipline, Law of 30 October 1886, Article 31). In connexion with the last point, however, Departmental Councils have a more important part to play in that they can take decisions which are legally binding, and not merely express a motivated opinion, on temporary and permanent suspensions of teachers, it being however understood that appeals can be brought before the Higher Council for Education.

Departmental Councils have very few powers as regards actual instruction. They merely supervise the application of curricula, methods and regulations decreed by the Higher Council for Education.

Lastly, in collaboration with municipal authorities, (a) they draw up internal regulations for public primary schools; (b) under the supervision of the Minister, they decide upon the number, character and location of public primary schools (Article 13 of the Law of 1886); (c) they grant women teachers permission to teach in boys' schools and men teachers permission to direct co-educational schools.

The details of the last-mentioned powers are set forth in the Laws of 30 May 1899, 30 October 1886 and 12 February 1933.

With regard to private schools, Departmental Councils fulfil the same functions as those mentioned in paragraph 3 above. Further, they pass sentence on private school teachers summoned before them by Departmental Inspectors for serious offences. They may pronounce special sentences with limitative clauses: blame, prohibition to teach in the same municipality. But they

may also, as in the case of public school teachers, deprive private school teachers temporarily or permanently of their right to teach. Lastly, they pass judgment, after full argument on both sides, on appeals against decisions to open private educational establishments. Being hybrid bodies, both in their functions and membership, Departmental Councils cannot be abolished for reasons of convenience or by law: for reasons of convenience because, since they are composed of representatives of political and municipal interests (Prefects and General Councillors), their decisions carry more weight with municipalities than those of Joint Administrative Commissions and Joint Technical Committees, which are composed of members of the teaching profession only; by law, because they have jurisdictional powers.

It seems difficult, indeed, to give the administration relatively discretionary, disciplinary powers over private school teachers, who are more or less independent.

Moreover, Departmental Councils alone, unlike Joint Administrative Commissions, are able to accept as members representatives of private schools.

Generally speaking, all questions relating to public primary school teachers—promotions, transfers, confirmation of appointments, discipline—can be referred to Joint Administrative Commissions. At the present time, however, details of these powers cannot be given, as the status of teachers has not yet been worked out in complete detail, and it is probable that there will be further differences of opinion regarding the extent of the powers of Joint Administrative Commissions.

While Joint Technical Committees can easily deal with all questions related to education and the internal organization of classes, all powers giving rise to municipal action must be retained by Departmental Councils. This applies to the distribution of schools, the opening of classes, primary boarding-schools, school buildings, internal school regulations.

PRIMARY SCHOOL COUNCIL

Primary School Councils were established under the Law of 18 May 1946 and have some of the powers of Joint Technical Committees. They give their opinion on all questions related to the work and organization of public primary schools.

In addition to the above powers, Joint Technical Committees are responsible in particular for preparing statutes for the different groups of civil servants employed under a single Head. It seems possible for the two Councils to co-exist, educational matters being

left to Primary School Councils, and statutory questions to Joint Technical Committees.

Experience has shown that these new bodies have a tendency to try to deal with all matters remotely or closely connected with their field of competence. While it seems more logical for Primary School Councils upon which the various categories of staff are more widely represented, to deal with problems connected with teaching, on the other hand, Joint Technical Committees, in which there is a clear distinction between administrative and staff representatives, are more strongly supported by the professional associations.

The matter should be taken up and clarified in special statutes.

APPENDIX 18. TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES

DECREE OF 6 JUNE 1946

The President of the provisional Government of the Republic,
On the report of the Minister of Education and the Minister of Finance,

Having regard to the Law of 2 November 1945 concerning the provisional organization of the public authorities;

Having regard to the Decree of 18 January 1887 concerning the organization of primary education;

After consultation with the Standing Committee of the Higher Council of Education;

HEREBY DECREES

Article 1. The Decree of 18 January 1887 shall be amended as follows:

Section I. Organization of Teachers' Training Colleges

Article 56 (new). Primary teachers' training colleges shall be public institutions for the training of male and female teachers for the public primary schools under the jurisdiction of the primary education authorities.

Article 57 (new). Teachers' training colleges shall be within the jurisdiction of the Rector, acting under the authority of the Minister of Education.

Article 58 (new). Teachers' training colleges shall be boarding establishments. Day boarders or day students may be admitted as an exceptional measure.

Boarding shall be free of charge. Every student teacher shall receive a State maintenance grant, to be paid out of the Training College budget. This grant is also payable to day students and day boarders, subject to a deduction, calculated according to the rates laid down in the budget, in respect of the advantages they are entitled to receive.

Article 59 (new). The training course shall last for four years, i.e., two years of general studies for both parts of the school leaving examination (*baccalauréat*) and two years of vocational training. The course shall consist of the two years' vocational training only for students who have passed the *baccalauréat* and have been recruited by a special competitive examination, the conditions of which are set out in Article 70 of the present Decree.

Provisionally, studies for the *baccalauréat* may occupy three years, and vocational training shall then last for one year only.

Article 60 (new). As from 1 January 1951, male and female replacement or temporary teachers holding the *baccalauréat* certificate or higher certificate may not occupy a permanent post until they have received vocational training in a teachers' training college, as provided by Article 59 of the present Decree.

They must have served at least two years and must satisfy the conditions set out in paragraphs 1, 3, 4 and 5 of Article 70 of the present Decree. Moreover, they cannot be admitted to a teachers' training college if they are more than twenty-five years of age on 1 January of the year in which they request admission.

Recommendations for admission shall be made by a Committee consisting of the Departmental Inspector (Chairman), the principals (male and female) of teachers' training colleges, primary school and nursery school inspectors (male and female), primary teachers' representatives on the Departmental Council (male for boys, female for girls).

The right to admission shall be decided by the Rector.

Article 78 of the present Decree shall be applicable to these teachers. The time during which they have taught in public schools before entering the teachers' training college shall be counted as part of their ten years' compulsory teaching service.

Article 61 (new). Male and female student teachers shall acquire a practical knowledge of teaching in:

(1) Schools, specially set up for the purpose, attached to

teachers' training colleges as permanent centres for training in teaching;

- (2) Demonstration classes, chosen by the Departmental Inspector in the departmental schools, where the various courses in vocational training shall be organized.

The status of these attached schools and demonstration classes shall be determined by Ministerial Order.

Section II. Administrative Staff and Teaching Staff

Article 62 (new). The principals of teachers' training colleges shall be appointed by the Minister of Education.

No one may hold a permanent appointment as principal of a teachers' training college unless he or she holds the qualifying certificate for primary inspectors and principals of teachers' training colleges, as well as the teachers' training certificate delivered by teachers' training colleges or *collèges* (secondary schools), or a *licence d'enseignement* (diploma giving the right to be *considered* for a teaching post), and unless he or she has served as a teacher for two years. At the end of this period, candidates may be permanently appointed as principals upon the recommendation of the Rector of the Academy and subject to the approval of the Standing Committee of the Consultative Committee on Primary Education. Candidates who are not permanently appointed at the end of that period shall resume their former status.

Article 64. Teachers responsible for studies prior to the *baccalauréat* shall be appointed by the Minister. They must hold the qualifying certificate for teachers in primary teachers' training colleges or *collèges*, or a *licence d'enseignement*.

They may be called upon to give some vocational training. Training for actual teaching shall, however, be given by teachers selected by the Minister from among primary school inspectors who have at least two years' experience and hold the former qualifying certificate for teachers in primary teachers' training colleges and senior primary schools or an equivalent diploma, or the present certificate for teachers in teachers' training colleges or *collèges*.

Primary school inspectors teaching in teachers' training colleges shall retain their previous status and salary. They shall be subject to supervision by the general inspectors of public education, under the Directorate of Primary Education.

Temporarily, until 1 October 1951, the primary school inspector's certificate shall not be compulsory for teachers in this category.

For the teaching of modern languages, drawing, music and manual

work, teachers who have specialized in any of these subjects or who hold a teachers' degree or *licence* may therefore be employed.

Instruction in agriculture, domestic science in teachers' training colleges shall be given by specialized teachers, with the co-operation of the Departmental Directorate of Agricultural Services.

Article 65 (new). Short courses of instruction in special subjects, consisting of lectures, practical work and excursions, may be given by qualified persons nominated each year by the Rector. They shall be paid on a fee basis.

Article 66 (new). A visiting doctor and dentist shall be assigned to each teachers' training college. They shall be appointed by the Rector on the recommendation of the School Board, after consultation with the district medical officer for schools and universities.

Article 67 (new). Subject to the Minister's approval, auxiliary teachers or instructresses may be employed in primary teachers' training colleges to give instruction in manual work or domestic science. They shall receive the same salaries as auxiliary teachers in modern *collèges*.

Article 68 (new). Assistant teachers for teachers' training colleges, selected by the Rector from among regular primary teachers, shall be seconded as provided in Article 33 of the Law of 30 December 1913, or 'detached for special service' and placed at the disposal of the Heads of colleges for administrative duties. There shall be one assistant teacher for every fifty or sixty students.

Assistant teachers shall be entitled to lodging and to school meals, as may be decided by the School Board.

Section III. Student-Teachers

Article 69 (new). For the first year class (general training, followed by professional training), student-teachers shall be recruited by means of a competitive examination. For the third year class, they shall be recruited by means of a competitive examination or selected by the Rectors from among the replacement or temporary teachers, as provided by Article 60.

The number of students in each category who may be admitted to the teachers' training colleges shall be fixed each year by the Appropriation Bill, on the recommendation of the Minister of Education, according to the number of vacancies likely to occur. The estimate shall be made in each Academy by the Rector, after consultation with the Departmental Councils concerned.

Article 70 (new). Every candidate must:

- (1) Be of French nationality.
- (2) Be over fifteen and under seventeen years of age on 1 January of the year in which he is a candidate for the competitive examination for admission to the first year class; be over seventeen and under nineteen years of age on 1 January of the year in which he is a candidate for the competitive examination to the third year class. This rule shall be strictly applied.
- (3) Hold the elementary certificate for admission to the first year class, and the *baccalauréat* for admission to the third year class.
- (4) Produce a certificate issued by a special committee of three doctors, and a report on an X-ray examination of his lungs showing that he is not suffering from any disease or infirmity making him unfit to teach.
- (5) Undertake to teach in public schools for ten years after leaving the teachers' training college. Further regulations are to be issued concerning the conditions governing this undertaking.
- (6) Not to be already a student in a teachers' training college, nor have passed the first part of the *baccalauréat* at the time of his admission to the first year class.

Candidates must also undertake to ask the military authorities, in due time, to defer their military service, in cases where they will reach military age before completing their training. Any student-teacher who fails to request this deferment or who, after obtaining it, does not take advantage of it, shall be deemed to have resigned.

No student shall be admitted to, nor retained in a teachers' training college if he is married. In very exceptional cases, the Minister may waive this rule.

Article 71 (new). After an enquiry, particularly with regard to their conduct, the Departmental Inspector shall draw up a list of the candidates admitted to the competitive examination.

Section V. Internal Administration and Discipline

Article 83. Male and female student-teachers shall be given every facility for practising their religion, in accordance with the general instructions of 9 April 1903.

Article 84. Students shall only be liable to the following punishments:

- (1) Detention imposed by the Principal.
- (2) A warning given by the Principal.
- (3) A reprimand before the committee of teachers, administered either by the Principal or by the Departmental Inspector, according to the seriousness of the offence.

- (4) Temporary expulsion, for a period not exceeding fifteen days, imposed by the Departmental Inspector, on the recommendation of the Principal, after consultation with the committee of teachers.
- (5) Transfer to another teachers' training college within the same jurisdiction, imposed by the Rector, on the recommendation of the Departmental Inspector, after consultation with the committee of teachers.
- (6) Permanent expulsion, imposed by the Minister, on the recommendation of the Rector and the Departmental Inspector, after consultation with the committee of teachers.

DECREE OF 10 MAY 1948

Article 1. The Decrees of 18 January 1887 and 6 June 1946 are hereby amended as follows:

Section II. Administrative and Teaching Staff

Article 71. In addition to the practical management and moral administration of the establishment and, in certain cases, to responsibility for courses and lectures on ethics, psychology and the principles of education, the Principal shall be responsible for supervising and instruction given and for directing the professional training of the student-teachers.

The Principal shall convene the teachers and the bursar of the training college, and the head teacher of the attached school, whenever he deems it necessary in a committee, for the discussion of any questions relating to college teaching and discipline.

At least once a quarter, assistant teachers and students' representatives shall be admitted to these meetings in an advisory capacity.

One student representative shall be elected for each year.

Section V. Internal Administration and Discipline

Article 97. At all times of the year, at least eight hours shall be allowed for sleep. The time-table for all days except Sundays and holidays shall be organized as follows, but there shall be no courses or practical training on Thursday afternoons.

Student-teachers may, however, be called upon, during their years of professional training, to take part in after-school and out-of-school activities on Thursday afternoons.

Approximately five hours each day shall be spent on personal hygiene, meals, recreation, games, domestic duties and physical

exercise in training colleges for men teachers, and five and a half hours in colleges for women teachers.

At least five of the working hours each day shall be devoted to personal work, reading, the preparation of lessons, and teaching practice in elementary or nursery schools.

The subjects taught shall be so arranged that, in principle, not more than four hours a day are spent in class, now counting the time devoted to singing, physical training, handwork and drawing.

Article 98. The time-table shall be drawn up by the Principal, with the assistance of the committee of teachers, and shall be submitted to the Rector for approval.

Article 99. At the beginning of each academic year, the Principal, with the assistance of the committee of teachers and subject to the Rector's approval, shall decide:

- (1) The conditions for the use of the attached school for observation and practice in child psychology and for teaching practice.
- (2) The conditions for the admission of student-mistresses to practical work in the demonstration classes for which provision is made in Article 61 of the constitutional decree.

The details of the organization of this practical training shall be settled at a later date.

Articles 100 and 101. Repealed.

Article 102. Sundays, Public Holidays and Thursday afternoons shall be the regular holidays. In training colleges for women teachers, student-mistresses preparing the *baccalauréat* may go out only at the request of their parents or of a friend *in loco parentis*. Walks or group excursions shall be organized for those remaining in college.

Individual leave of absence may be authorized by the Principal.

Student-masters and student-mistresses in the professional training class shall be entitled to correspond without restriction.

Student-masters and student-mistresses may belong to professional organizations and, from the time they enter the professional training class, may become members of the departmental branches of purely trade union organizations, may receive the official national and departmental publications of such organizations, may attend their meetings on regular holidays.

Student-teachers may not, however, form themselves into political or denominational associations, nor may they receive any propaganda publications.

CIRCULAR OF 15 NOVEMBER 1947

Time-Tables and Curricula of Vocational Training

Time Allotted to Various Aspects of Training

	First year	Second year
<i>Ex cathedra</i> teaching	14 hours	15 hours
Physical training	3 hours	3 hours
Practical work	13 hours	13 hours
Personal work	18 hours	17 hours
Total	48 hours	48 hours

The special teaching of computation and science should not be included in the two hours provided for special pedagogy, but in the hour reserved for arithmetic in the first year and for practical work given as a preparation for the teaching of science in the second year. Practice lessons, however, should cover all subjects.

Time-table for Vocational Training in Two Years

	First year	Second year
Child psychology	3 hours (incl. 2 hrs. of practical work)	3 hours (incl. 2 hrs. of practical work)
Study of social facts	1 hour	1 hour
General pedagogy	1 hour (or 2 hrs. each fortnight)	1 hour (or 2 hrs. each fortnight)
Special pedagogy	2 hours	2 hours
Practice lesson	1 hour	1 hour
History of education and of technical pedagogical doc- trines	1 hour	1 hour
Professional ethics, legislation, school administration		1 hour
French literature	1 hour	1 hour
French grammar	1 hour	1 hour
History and local geography	1 hour	1 hour
Arithmetic and teaching of com- putation	1 hour	
Physics and natural science, na- ture study	1 hour	1 hour
Practical work as a preparation for the teaching of the scien- ces based on observation and of applied science		1 hour

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

	First year	Second year
General culture (lectures by visiting specialized teachers, pupils, etc.)	1 hour	1 hour
Drawing (three hours each fortnight)	1½ hours	1½ hours
Music and choral singing .. .	1½ hours	1½ hours
Optional subjects: personal work under the direction of a specialized teacher	1 hour	1 hour
Instruction in domestic science, manual work or agriculture.	5 hours	5 hours
Social or out-of school activities.	3 hours	3 hours
Physical training	3 hours	3 hours
Total	30 hours	31 hours

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY

General Remarks. First-Second Years

The syllabus for the study of child psychology covers both years of vocational training; its aim is twofold:

- (1) To describe in its successive stages, the psycho-physiological development of children and, consequently, to apply modern methods of observation and experimentation to this genetic study.
- (2) To use, for that purpose, the elementary knowledge of general psychology gained by trainees in the philosophy class, generally under the normal heads of faculties and processes of the mind.

The first year's course will be an introduction to the study and practice of methods of observation and experimentation in their application to the understanding of children.

In the second year, the information thus collected and provisionally classified under the traditional heads will furnish material for a comprehensive and comparative description of the successive ages of childhood and adolescence, as they may be imagined and characterized today.

Child Psychology. First Year

I. Introduction

- (a) The child and the adult.

Former and present conceptions of childhood.

Special characteristics of childhood from various points of view: physiological, psychological, social. The close interdependence of psychology, physiology and the social environment should be stressed whenever possible.

- (b) The child's development in its various phases—the ages of childhood.
- (c) Need for a special study of childhood—'comprehensive' study: body, mind, emotions, normal activities.

II. Source of this knowledge (Critical study)

- (a) Introspection.
- (b) The child in literature: childhood memories, autobiographies, novels.
- (c) Methodical observations by psychologists: Greyer, Peret, Medici, Soupın, etc.
- (d) Direct observation: intuitive, empirical, systematic (essay), scientific (laboratory work).

III. Practical work (Individual work and team work)

- (a) Tests.
- (b) Vocational guidance (visit to the Centre).
- (c) Essays on children, based on systematic questionnaires (Rosso-limo, etc.).
- (d) Direct study of the behaviour of school children at various ages; nursery school, primary school, additional courses. Interpretation of material provided by work done in school: lessons, exercises, questions, writing, drawings, etc. Preparation of an index-card.
- (e) Physical and mental development of the child (as far as unbroken observation can be carried out: teams to work in relays).
- (f) Comparative study of several children of the same age—mental age.
- (g) Introduction to the elements of characterology and morpho-psychology. Character index-cards. Exercise in grouping the pupils in a school or class.

IV. Enquiries into determining influences

- (a) Heredity—enquiries concerning the family.
- (b) Environment: Family. Local surroundings: town, district in town, village, workers, peasants, etc. School: small and large schools. Other children: formation of groups.
- (c) The influences of modern life: country dwellers and town dwellers; newspapers, books; cinema, radio.

Genetic Psychology. Second Year

I. General

- (a) Definition, justification of genetic psychology.
- (b) General outline of phases and critical periods from birth to maturity.

II. Infancy (from birth to the end of the first year)

- (a) Importance of the pre-natal period, shock of birth (brief outline).
- (b) Reaction of the infant to internal stimuli. The expression of elementary instincts.
- (c) The development of emotions.
- (d) The first signs of intelligence: exercise of the senses, memory, the first attempts to speak.

III. The first stage of childhood (second and third years)

- (a) Physical development: standing up and walking.
- (b) Exploration of the outside world: perceptions, idea of an object, the body. Ideas of space and time, sizes and shapes.
- (c) Interest in vocal sounds and progress in talking.
- (d) Emotional life.

IV. The second stage of childhood (from three to seven years of age)

- (a) Physical development.
- (b) Wider interests: curiosity and imitation.
Imagination: the age of games and fairy-tales: first drawings.
- (c) Development of learning faculties: attention, memory, association, ideas.
- (d) Language and thought
- (e) Psychology of children at nursery schools, first attempt at adaption to society, training and habits.
- (f) Child logic—self-centredness.

V. The third stage of childhood (from seven to twelve years of age)

- (a) Physical development
- (b) The acquisition of knowledge for some purpose.
- (c) The gradual overcoming of self-centredness by a spirit of objectivity.

- (d) The discovery of simple abstract interests: learning, understanding, judgment and reason.
- (e) Constructive imagination: the Robinson Crusoe age.

VI. Pre-Adolescence and Adolescence (from thirteen to eighteen years of age)

- (a) The critical age of puberty.
- (b) Juvenile emotions:
Self-exaltation, pride and shyness, solitude, return of self-centredness. Changes in social sentiments: altruism, friendships, independence.
- (c) Adolescent idealism; choice of models of conduct. The noble sentiments: truth, beauty, virtue.
- (d) Complex abstract interests.
- (e) Training of personality and character.

VII. Towards balanced maturity

- (a) Economic, social and spiritual interests, nationality.
- (b) Assumption of responsibilities: professional, municipal (soldier, citizen), domestic (marriage).
- (c) Stabilization and development of the personality.
- (d) General conclusion: review of the normal evolution of a human being, from the process of growing to the acquisition of personality.

VIII. Mentally deficient and abnormal children

- (a) Psycho-physiological study of actual cases of backwardness and mental deficiency in children (maladjusted children).
- (b) Detection, methods of education, treatment.
- (c) Visits to special classes and institutions.

SOCIAL FACTS

Teaching on this subject is meant to serve as a guide only. The outline given here is not to be studied in detail. A choice should be made of a few specially important questions, likely to be of the greatest interest to present-day educators, on which substantial information is available. Several lessons will be devoted to each question, to enable it to be studied in detail.

This study of social facts is not a course in law, political economy or social ethics. Its object is to accustom student-teachers to

consider social phenomena as facts, to view them without prejudice, credulity or narrowness. The syllabus has been deliberately limited; it is hoped that the study of this subject will help to introduce the spirit of objectivity into a field where it is too often lacking.

Student-teachers will naturally be expected to do a great deal of work themselves: *ex-cathedra* teaching will be the exception; essays, discussions, individual or team work, the rule.

Social Facts. Preliminary Lessons

I. Characteristics of social facts

Social facts in relation to historical facts, and to psychological facts.

II. Methods of exploration and description

- (a) Social facts considered as things: observation, comparison, statistics. Contribution of history, human geography, political economy.
- (b) Social facts considered in their relationship to consciences: questionnaires, surveys. Contribution of social psychology.

Human Societies, Institutions

- (a) Animal and human societies.
- (b) The human inhabitants of the earth, distribution of populations (causes of dense or sparse population, population movements, birth-rate).
- (c) Ethnic groups. The racial problem.
- (d) Linguistic groups.
- (e) Religions throughout the world.

Groups in modern and contemporary societies

- (a) Groups related by blood. The family. Its present legal constitution. Relations between its members: legal, moral. Dissolution; of the family; divorce. Parents and children; the status of women.
- (b) Political communities
 - (1) The village, the town (the country scene, the town scene, health, town-planning, homes).
 - (2) The commune, municipal institutions, how they work, local life.
 - (3) The region: regionalism, unity and diversity.

- (4) The nation: its historical origins, ethical basis, traditions, and role in the world. French democracy: the political constitution of France, its secular nature; the political parties. The State—its functions. The Administration (civil servants and their status). The State and the school. Development of civic sense. Patriotism.
- (5) Foreign political institutions. Centralized democracy and federal democracy. Authoritarian democracy and liberal democracy.
- (6) The mother country and associated countries.

III. Economics groups

Capitalist society.

Social classes

Organisms for production, consumption and exchange; agricultural associations; industrial and commercial societies; currency, credit, banks. Protectionism and free trade. Controlled economy; planned economy.

Organization of labour: factories; agricultural, industrial and commercial undertakings; markets; transport.

Workers' conditions: wages, disputes.

Workers' organizations: mutual benefit societies, co-operatives, trade unions, federations of trade unions, labour confederations.

Social security organisms.

IV. Groups engaged in non-profit-making activities

Political groups. The political parties.

Cultural groups (learned and artistic societies, societies for popular education, etc.).

SOCIAL LIFE

Social relations, social organization, social life

Social organization

Relations between the individual and Society (customs and laws)

Equality and hierarchy.

Authority and liberty.

Evolution of Societies

Problem of progress.

Evolution and revolution.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

Technical advances, spread of thought and of knowledge.
Respect for the human person; regard for thought and for human life.

The Political Problem

Solutions (in time and space).

Relations between States: limitation of national sovereignty.

From the national to the international plane: (wars, peace: The requisite economic, psychological and political conditions).

The international spirit.

International organizations: UNO, ILO.

Universal Postal Union. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. International Monetary Fund. World Federation of Trade Unions. Congresses.

GENERAL TEACHING

Half the time will be occupied by practical work: concerning the age of pupils in the various classes, the proportion of bright to backward pupils; observations on the different methods employed, the use of books, written work, rewards and punishments, their causes and effects, recreation and games; critical discussions regarding time-tables, etc.

Education: different conceptions

Reasons for an educational policy; possibilities and limitations.

Part played by the family, the school and the State in education.

Importance of education in a democracy.

Fundamental unity of education and its various aspects (physical, intellectual, æsthetic and ethical).

Collective education: its relation to individual education.

Ways in which collective education must take account of classroom psychology (imitation, suggestion, mental infection).

Order and discipline.

Respect for the child; various forms of discipline.

Punishments; conditions for the exercise of authority.

Distribution of pupils in the various classes.

Methods: traditional and new methods.

Educational organization of the school and class; the one-class school.

Preparation of the classroom.

The lesson.

Written exercises.

Use of books and teaching materials.

Supervision. Questioning, revision, composition.

Games.

Nursery schools: purpose, organization, methods and social influence.

Adjustment classes; open-air schools and classes: recruitment, organization and methods.

Rural schools: lines along which instruction is given; part played in preparing young people to take up farming.

SPECIAL TEACHING

Will be distributed over the two years by the teacher concerned.

A study of each of the subjects taught in primary schools, with emphasis on its educational or practical value, the spirit in which it must be taught, the methods appropriate to it. Reading of texts written by educationists. Examinations in manual work. Demonstration and practice lessons.

HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AND THEORIES

Education in Greece: Plato's educational doctrines.

Theological and scholastic education in the Middle Ages. Humanism and Reformation: Erasmus, Luther, Rabelais, Montaigne.

Catholic education in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Jesuits, Jansenists, Oratorians, 'Brothers of the Christian Schools'). The education of girls: Fénelon, Mme de Maintenon.

Locke: J. J. Rousseau and his disciples, Pestalozzi.

Froebel: The ideas and plans of the Revolution.

The Napoleonic system and middle-class education.

Popular education in France in the nineteenth century; Guizot's law (1832); teachers' training colleges; Falloux's law (1850); Victor Duruy; The schools of the Third Republic (1881-1882-1889); Jules Ferry.

Education abroad in the nineteenth century. Anglo-Saxon countries; institutions; doctrines (Spencer, William James). Germany; institutions.

The contemporary educational movement. Theorists and innovators: Dewey, Kerchensteiner, Decroly, Ferrière, Mme Montessori.

Education in U.S.S.R.

National Socialist education in Germany.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

Fascist education in Italy.

Education in Great Britain.

The modern French school; its organization; traditional and new methods.

PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

(1 hour in the 2nd year)

The educator: his mission and responsibility.

The need for maintaining and developing his general and professional culture.

Secularity in teaching and the duties of the lay teacher.

His duties towards his pupils, their families, the State.

His duties towards the school authorities.

His relations with his colleagues and other members of the University. The teacher and trade unionism.

The teacher's private and public life.

His moral and social role in the commune.

SCHOOL LEGISLATION

(1 hour in the 2nd year)

General idea of the present organization of the various studies.

Detailed study of the laws, decrees, orders and circulars governing primary education: determination of the principles embodied in each of them and their application to actual problems arising in the teacher's practical life.

Training in administrative correspondence.

ADDITIONAL GENERAL CULTURE

Principals are given full latitude to arrange for the students to receive additional general culture. They will do so as far as local circumstances permit.

For this additional general culture they will be able to call on the services of their teachers, and also on those of the inspectors, primary and secondary teachers of the department, and various persons who, owing to their professional standing and the nature of their work, might usefully co-operate in imparting general information.

The object of these lectures will be to acquaint students with the

scientific, artistic and literary questions of the day, and with economic and social tendencies in the modern world.

PREPARATION OF STUDENT-TEACHERS OF BOTH SEXES FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL AND POST-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

I. *The various forms of association. Visits, explanations, participation*

Secular Friendly Society, Old Boys' Association.
Rural centre (*foyer*).
Youth hostel.
School co-operative.
School canteen.
Management Committee.
Rural and urban cultural centre.
Workers' educational courses.
Holiday camps.
Co-operative for the production, sale, purchase and consumption of goods (garden, workshop).
Mutual Help Society.

II. *Groups inside the teachers' training college*

School co-operative.
Athletic associations.
Theatre group.
Music group, choir.
Tourist group.
Reception club (particularly for welcoming foreigners).
Information club (newspapers, magazines, books).

III. *The techniques of popular culture*

- (1) Audio-visual technique. Cinema, lantern slides, animated cartoons. Comments on films (film library). Cinema club shows.
- (2) Technique of dramatic art. Selection of plays—elocution. The art of acting, the art of simple scene designing.
- (3) The technique of artistic enunciation. Lectures on visual art and the practical means. Lectures on music. Record library.
- (4) Musical techniques. Formation of orchestras and choirs. Dancing.

The study of folklore should be given an important place in all the activities mentioned under (2), (3), (4).

- (5) The organization and functioning of school and popular libraries. Travelling library co-operatives. Group reading. Evening gatherings. Reading digest (for others' use).
- (6) Techniques of mental training. Psychology of the adult peasant and worker (taking account of the chief trades). Summaries of reading material and addresses on subjects of interest to workers and peasants. Conduct of discussions on these subjects (how to avoid errors of reasoning, lack of objectivity, violence, etc.). Training of workers and peasants in giving brief oral addresses. Training in the drafting of a written report on a simple fact. How to read a newspaper and listen to a lecture.

Object and use. To enable non-intellectuals: (a) to participate in discussions, make speeches, give lectures, write letters, memoranda and reports; (b) to acquire the deepest and widest possible understanding.

Instruments of information and documentation. Elements of bibliography, use of libraries, catalogues, works of reference.

Mental training proper by means of concrete examples. Introduction to elementary processes of the mind.

- (1) Training in lucid thinking: (a) Observation, analysis, classification, definition, questions and answers. (b) Comparison, perspective (in time and space), summarizing, note taking.
- (2) Training in correct reasoning: syllogisms; correct logical reasoning; objective judgments (thesis, antithesis, synthesis); meaning of inevitable contradictions.
- (3) Training in generalizations: (a) Idea of causes and laws; (b) Scientific doubt; (c) Relativity; (d) The essential permanence of the unity of the mind.

The training of monitors for holiday camps: techniques of observation, techniques of games, techniques according to ages, medical care.

Instruction in agriculture: preparation of students for agricultural studies, for the qualifying teachers' certificate in agriculture or domestic science; (a) application of the students' scientific knowledge to agricultural problems. (b) study of the agricultural conditions existing in the department.

The teaching of domestic science: (a) grounding in domestic science for girls; (b) special training in domestic science for rural areas (farmers' wives).

Instruction on child welfare.

Practical training for the citizen: Mutual societies, co-operatives. Introduction to elementary law.

Out-of-school training for teachers: secretarial work for the town-hall; secretarial work for farmers' unions; other secretarial work.

APPENDIX 19. BILL ON THE EDUCATION OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

REASONS FOR THE BILL

All children capable of being taught are subject to compulsory education.

A certain number, however, cannot adapt themselves to normal school conditions, because they are not able to follow the ordinary school syllabus owing to physical, sensory or mental defects or to abnormalities of character or behaviour. Special methods of education should help them to develop and adapt themselves.

Other children cannot attend ordinary day schools because their family life is unsatisfactory, jeopardizing their health, safety or morality.

The effect of the war and post-war circumstances has been to increase considerably the number of children who are handicapped or exposed to danger. A systematic enquiry has enabled many such cases to be detected both inside and outside schools. Everyone knows nowadays what a serious and urgent problem the future of abnormal children raises for the public authorities and, particularly, for the Ministry of Education.

There are unfortunately not enough special institutions for these children, and far from enough public institutions under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. Whilst private initiative, encouraged by the Vichy Government and often now financially assisted by communities and by the *Sécurité Sociale*, has set up a number of re-education centres for handicapped children, the public schools—open to all in principle—can only take a small number of educable handicapped children owing to the lack of adequate legal provision for the establishment of the special classes and schools required for their education.

The Law of 15 April 1909 laid down the conditions of public

primary education for backward children; but that forty-year old law was deemed, even by those who framed it, inadequate.

Firstly, it leaves to the initiative of the communes and departments the establishment of the adjustment classes and schools for which it provides: whatever the number of children actually found to be backward, the establishment of such classes and schools remains optional.

Secondly, it deals only with backward children, whereas those who are handicapped, exposed to danger, etc., should also be taught and re-educated in special institutions.

The 1909 legislators were aware of these two limitations. Mr. Strauss, in laying the Bill before the Senate, said: 'This Bill is only the first step in the reform. . . . The period of optional education will prepare people's minds and facilitate the drawing up of a more comprehensive law which will bring under the protection of the public authorities children suffering from every kind of misfortune. Sooner or later, once the experiment is made, that obligation will become evident.'

Today people's minds are prepared; experience has shown that appropriate education can equip handicapped children, or those exposed to danger to live normal lives; that it can save them from unemployment, from the necessity of going to rescue homes, or from prison. The passing of the comprehensive Bill which was considered necessary even in 1909 can no longer be deferred.

The Bill we are submitting to the National Assembly amends and supplements the 1909 legislation on three essential points:

It lays down the conditions in which the cost of the foundation and installation of special classes and schools shall be compulsorily borne by the State, the department and the communes.

It extends eligibility to receive special education to every category of handicapped children and of those exposed to danger, provided they are educable.

It provides for a systematic professional training of State teachers who will be put in charge of special classes or schools. It also regularizes the *de facto* status of the Special Centres placed, since November 1944, under the authority of the Directorate of Primary Education.

In addition the text we are presenting makes good an important omission in the 1909 Act. It may then have seemed superfluous to recall explicitly that private primary adjustment schools were to rank with ordinary private primary schools, with regard both to conditions of declaration, opening and closing and to the qualifications required of the headmaster and staff and the rules governing management and supervision. However, the provisions of the 1886 Act were overlooked, and many re-education establishments

were opened irregularly. In our opinion handicapped children and those exposed to danger are entitled to particularly vigilant care and their education requires guaranteed ability and competence. We have therefore deemed it necessary to adapt the legislation now in force to private establishments which teach and educate abnormal children of any kind.

These various provisions of the Bill will enable the Ministry of Education to fulfil the mission which devolves upon it with regard to handicapped children. The care due to those children requires assistance from various specialists and the collaboration of several Ministerial departments, but it is obviously for the Ministry of Education to ensure their education and social adaptation whenever possible.

Adequate legislation alone can enable the Ministry to expand its activities and take all the steps required in the interests both of justice and of the well-being of the community.

CHAPTER I. PROVISIONS APPLICABLE TO BOTH PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Article 1. Since all educable children are subject to compulsory education, the instruction and education of educable children of school age who cannot adapt themselves to normal school conditions owing to physical, sensory or mental defects, or to abnormalities of character or behaviour, or because their health, safety or education are in jeopardy, or owing to the fact that their contact at school with other children is harmful to the latter, are provided in special classes attached to ordinary school and in special separate schools which may have boarding facilities.

An Order issued jointly by the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Labour shall determine the categories of children who should be sent to the establishments referred to in paragraph 1 of the present Article.

Article 2. A school with one or several classes shall be attached to all institutions, of whatever kind, including health establishments, which admit, during the time when schools are open, children and adolescents capable of being taught.

Article 3. The above classes or schools may be either public—i.e., founded and maintained by the State, departments or communes—or private—i.e., founded and maintained by individuals or associations.

Article 4. Any application for a subvention submitted to a public body or to a branch of the *Sécurité Sociale* on behalf of any institution that admits children or adolescents belonging to the categories listed in Article 1, shall be accompanied by the opinion of the Departmental Inspector, based upon a thorough enquiry concerning the organization of the establishment and its educational work.

Article 5. Defective pupils over fourteen years of age may attend special primary classes or schools if their mental development necessitates this step. They shall receive general instruction and vocational training.

Article 6. The establishments referred to in Article 1 shall specialize according to the age, sex and ability of the children. They may, however, be attended simultaneously by several categories of children and adolescents on condition that suitable material arrangements are provided.

Children of both sexes may be admitted to the special classes by authorization of the Departmental Inspector after consultation with the Departmental Council.

In other establishments, there shall be two distinct sections for boys and girls, though under the same management, and all the necessary arrangements shall be made to ensure the segregation of the sexes in premises set aside for boarding accommodation.

Article 7. A Medico-Educational Committee shall be organized in every Primary School Inspector's district. The committee shall include:

- (1) The Primary School Inspector, Chairman.
- (2) A specialized headmaster or teacher, appointed by the Departmental Inspector on the proposal of the Primary School Inspector.
- (3) The school doctor and, if necessary, a specialist chosen by the Prefect in agreement with the Departmental Inspector and the Departmental Director of Health.
- (4) The Inspector of Technical Training or his deputy, in cases where the committee has to examine pupils older than fourteen.

A representative of the family concerned shall always have the right to be heard by the Committee.

The Committee shall examine any children and adolescents suitable for admission to one of the classes or schools referred to in Article 1, who are brought to its notice by headmasters, school doctors, families, administrative or legal authorities and children's neuro-psychiatrists.

The committee shall determine which children should not be admitted to or allowed to remain in public and private primary schools, and decide whether they should be admitted to one of the establishments referred to in Article 1. It shall be empowered, if it considers such a step to be necessary, to send the children to an observation centre before coming to a decision.

Should the family concerned refuse to accept the Medico-Educational Committee's ruling, then such a family shall have the right to lodge an appeal before the Departmental Council which, if the refusal is maintained, shall so inform the magistrates through the Departmental Inspector.

The expenses entailed by Medico-Educational Committees shall be borne by the State and charged to the budget of the Ministry of Education.

Article 8. The inspection of the establishments referred to in Article 1 is carried out by the authorities mentioned in the provisions in force for the different degrees of education.

The inspection of boarding establishments for girls shall be entrusted to women inspectors appointed by the Minister of Education.

Article 9. A qualifying certificate for teaching in special schools, comprising several sections, and a special diploma for teaching in boarding establishments, awarded by the Minister of Education, are hereby instituted.

An Order, issued on the basis of a report by the Minister of Education, shall determine the conditions under which candidates can prepare for and obtain such diplomas as well as the curriculum and the nature of the tests required.

CHAPTER II. PROVISIONS APPLICABLE TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Article 10. The Minister of Education, after consultation with the relevant Joint Commissions, shall draw up a list of the establishments to be set up for the benefit of the categories of children mentioned in Article 1.

The Ministerial Order setting up a special class or school shall specify the conditions in which it is to carry out the special work for which it is created, as well as its organization.

Article 11. The creation of a special class attached to an elementary primary school is compulsory for all communes in which there are found to be twelve or more defective pupils belonging to one of the categories mentioned in Article 1.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

The amount of the subvention granted by the State to communes for the creation of such classes shall be equal to ninety per cent of the actual cost. The expenses incurred for the purchase and renewal of teaching materials shall be borne by the commune.

Article 12. Every department must have one or more public schools, with boarding facilities, able to admit under the same management as the ordinary school, children belonging to the categories listed in Article 1. The cost of setting up such schools shall be borne by the State; the maintenance and running expenses by the department.

In cases where a commune takes the initiative of founding or installing a special school, with or without boarding facilities, the provisions of paragraph 1 of the present Article shall be applicable to it.

Article 13. A special school may be established by a department or a commune within the boundaries of another department or commune, following an agreement between the authorities concerned.

Several communes—and, as an exceptional measure several departments—may be authorized by the Minister of Education to establish and maintain jointly a special class or school.

The communities which have founded such an establishment shall be responsible for all the running expenses which legally devolve upon the departments and communes.

Article 14. The Minister of Education shall decide the creation of special national schools. The costs involved shall all be met by the State.

Article 15. In each area under the jurisdiction of an Academy, there shall be set up, by order of the Minister of Education, at least one Observation Centre provided with boarding facilities and including a vocational guidance service. The cost of founding and running such Centres shall be borne by the State and charged to the Education budget. The Observation Centres may be attached to one of the public establishments referred to in Chapter II of the present law.

Article 16. Scholarships and part-scholarships for boarders and day boarders, as well as maintenance grants, shall be awarded by the State, the departments or the communes to pupils in special classes and schools who cannot be maintained by their families or by public bodies empowered to act in their stead.

Article 17. Special schools with boarding facilities shall have legal status and shall be financially independent. They shall be administered by a Governing Board and a headmaster or mistress. The management of materials and the accounts shall be entrusted to a finance officer. However, in exceptional cases and by authorization of the Minister of Education, those functions may be carried out by the headmaster or mistress under an agreement specifying that they are entrusted to him or her by the community which founded the school.

Article 18. Special public classes and schools may be set up in connexion with boarding schools founded and maintained by bodies under the jurisdiction of public establishments or by voluntary associations auxiliary to public schools and approved by the Minister of Education, on the recommendation of a special committee.

The cost of the installation and maintenance of special establishments founded by voluntary associations auxiliary to public schools, which comprise public classes, may be subsidized at the maximum rate laid down in the laws and regulations at present in force, out of funds allocated to the Ministry of Education for the construction of schools.

Article 19. Each special school shall have a Management Committee.

An Order of the Minister of Education shall lay down the composition and terms of reference of that committee.

Article 20. The headmasters and headmistresses of special schools shall be appointed by the Minister on the advice of the Joint Administrative Commissions, irrespective of their administrative appurtenance. The Heads in question shall:

- (1) Possess the special teaching certificate (CAES).
- (2) Have served a probationary period, under conditions to be laid down by an Order.
- (3) Be included in the list of qualified persons compiled by the Ministry of Education after consultation with the Joint Administrative Commissions.

Technical training and secondary school staff other than headmasters shall be appointed in accordance with the regulations applicable to their category. But the staff of apprenticeship centres shall be appointed by the Minister (Secretary of State for Technical Training).

Men and women teachers taking classes or looking after boarders in special schools are appointed by the Rector upon the recommendation of the Departmental Inspector. They shall be selected from among men and women teachers in the department who have

obtained the special teaching certificate. If there are no men or women teachers in the department holding this certificate, teachers so qualified shall be recruited from another department.

If there is a lack of specialized men or women teachers, boarders shall be entrusted to the care of educators holding the special diploma referred to in Article 9, who shall be appointed as deputies by the Departmental Inspector upon the recommendation of the headmaster of the school.

Article 21. Public school teachers may be seconded to educational establishments coming under the authority of Ministries other than the Ministry of Education, and which take children belonging to the categories mentioned in Article 1; their duties in such establishments may include management, teaching, observation and training; they shall continue to be subject to the inspection mentioned in Article 8.

When administrative and financial responsibility for the establishment is not placed in the hands of a member of the public school teaching profession, an educational director shall be appointed in accordance with the terms of Article 20; he shall be a public school teacher and shall be responsible for organizing the teaching and training of the boarders; the appointment of all teaching staff to serve under his authority shall be subject to his approval.

Article 22. The Ministry of Education shall organize courses of vocational training for teachers in special schools and for educational directors of such schools. For that purpose, a joint Order shall be issued by the Ministers of Education and Finance, setting up at least one National Institute for Special Education, which shall have legal status and be financially independent to which special classes and at least one special boarding-school shall be attached.

Article 23. Special information courses for inspectors shall be organized by the Ministry of Education.

Article 24. The following matters shall be determined by Order:

- (1) The membership and terms of reference of Governing Boards of Special Schools with boarding facilities, of National Institutes for Special Education and of observation Centres, as well as the administrative and financial regulations of such establishments.
- (2) The rules relating to promotions, discipline and remuneration of staff in such establishments.

These Orders shall be issued on the basis of reports by the Ministers of Education and Finance.

CHAPTER III. PROVISIONS APPLICABLE TO PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Article 25. Any person wishing to open an establishment for children of school age belonging to the categories referred to in Article 1 shall:

- (1) In the case of a primary school, fulfil the conditions laid down by Articles 37, 38, 39 of the Law of 30 October 1886.
- (2) In the case of a secondary school, fulfil the conditions laid down by Articles 60 (amended by the Law of 3 March 1938), 61 and 64 of the Law of 15 March 1850.
- (3) In the case of a technical training school, fulfil the conditions laid down by Articles 26 to 28 of the Law of 25 July 1919, 17 of the Ordinance of 24 May 1938, and the Order of 3 January 1946.

Article 26. No person may be a headmaster or teacher in a private school which admits children belonging to the categories mentioned in Article 1, unless he fulfils the following conditions:

- (1) He must be French, and at least twenty-five years of age (for headmasters who also teach) or at least eighteen years of age (for teachers).
- (2) He must hold the higher certificate (*brevet supérieur*) or have passed the *baccalauréat* and must also have obtained the special teaching certificate.

The following persons are forbidden to run a special private school or to be employed therein: persons who have been convicted of a crime or misdemeanour involving dishonesty or moral turpitude; persons who have been deprived in court of all or some of the rights mentioned in Article 42 of the Criminal Code; persons who have been permanently suspended from teaching.

Article 27. No special class may be attached to a private school if the teacher in charge of that class has not obtained the special teaching certificate.

No person may undertake the training of boarders in a special private school unless he fulfils the following conditions:

- (1) He must be French and at least eighteen years of age.
- (2) He must hold the special diploma issued by the Minister of Education.

Article 28. Every headmaster of a special private school shall keep a staff-register in which he shall enter the surnames, christian names, nationalities and place and date of birth of staff members employed in teaching and training; he shall also enter their previous occupations and domiciles, as well as any certificates which they hold and the date at which they obtained them.

Article 29. Any person opening or running an educational establishment for children belonging to the categories mentioned in Article 1, who fails to fulfil the conditions laid down in Articles 25 and 26 of this law, shall be summoned before the Court of Summary Jurisdiction in the place where the offence was committed.

He shall be sentenced to a term of imprisonment of a fortnight to six months, and to a fine, of 40,000 to 200,000 francs.

Any person making an intentionally false or incomplete declaration shall be liable to the same penalty.

If an offence is repeated, the offender shall be sentenced to a term of imprisonment, of one month to two years, and to a fine of 100,000 to 400,000 francs.

The same penalties will be enacted against any person who has opened one of the aforesaid schools before the expiration of the time-limit prescribed by existing laws and regulations, or in spite of an objection, or who has kept his school open in spite of a decision to close it taken in accordance with Article 32.

In all the above cases, the Court of Summary Jurisdiction may, if the offence is repeated, temporarily or permanently deprive the offender of the right to be headmaster of one of the said schools.

Any person failing to respect the above prohibition is liable to a term of imprisonment of one month to two years and to a fine of 100,000 to 400,000 francs.

Article 30. Any headmaster of a special private school who refuses to submit to supervision and inspection by the educational authorities under this Law shall be summoned before the Court of Summary Jurisdiction and fined 40,000 to 200,000 francs.

In case of repetition of the offence, the fine shall be 120,000 to 400,000 francs. Article 463 of the Penal Code may be applied.

If refusal to comply with the law has led to two sentences in one year, the Court passing the second sentence shall order the school to be closed.

Governors or administrative heads of schools may be liable to the penalties decreed by the present article.

Article 31. Any headmaster or member of the teaching staff in a special private school may, at the suit of the Public Prosecutor or the district Academy authorities, be summoned for a serious offence in the exercise of his duties, misdemeanour or immoral behaviour:

- (1) Before the Departmental Council, in the case of a primary school.
- (2) Before the Academy Board, in the case of a secondary school.
- (3) Before the Departmental Technical Training Committee, in the case of a technical training school.

A vote of censure may be passed upon him or he may be temporarily or permanently suspended from his professional duties, without prejudice to the penalties incurred for crime or misdemeanour under the Penal Code.

Appeals against sentences may always be brought, in due legal form, before the Higher Council for Education.

Any such appeal shall not be a stay.

Article 32. The Prefect may order the temporary or final closing of a special private school when the health and morality of the pupils is endangered by the way the school is run, by lack of care, bad treatment or lack of supervision.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Article 33. The following are included in the category of Special National Schools provided for in Article 14: Specialized Centres attached to the Directorate of Primary Education by Order of the Minister of Education dated 17 November 1944, amended by the Order of 20 April 1948, and at present run by the Committee 'Assistance to Young People in France' (*l'Aide aux Jeunes de France*), 17, rue de Miromesnil, Paris-8^e.

Article 34. Leases and agreements of all kinds signed by previous managements of Specialized Centres which have been transformed into public educational establishments are automatically transferred to such establishments, notwithstanding any stipulation to the contrary.

Movables of all kinds existing in the Specialized Centres and in the various headquarters of the previous managements shall be presumed, in default of proof to the contrary, to be State property and shall be assigned to Special National Schools.

Ownership of the premises belonging to the present managements and used for the Special National Schools mentioned in Article 33 shall be transferred by right to the State. If, however, such bodies can prove that they bought, built or converted the aforesaid premises with their own money, they shall receive fair compensation.

Article 35. The present law is applicable to educational establishments which existed before its promulgation and which admit children belonging to the categories mentioned in Article 1. Headmasters of such schools are allowed six months to declare them open, in accordance with Article 25.

Staff of the special private schools referred to in Chapter III are allowed a period of three years from the date of promulgation of

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

the present law to obtain the certificates and diplomas required under Articles 26 and 27.

Article 36. The following are considered as equivalent to one of the sections of the special teaching certificate: the CAEA, instituted by the Order of 14 August 1909, amended by the Order of 17 March 1937, and the CAEPA instituted by the Order of 18 July 1939.

Article 37. An Order will be issued containing special provisions for staff employed in public and private special schools.

Article 38. All provisions contrary to the present law are hereby abrogated.

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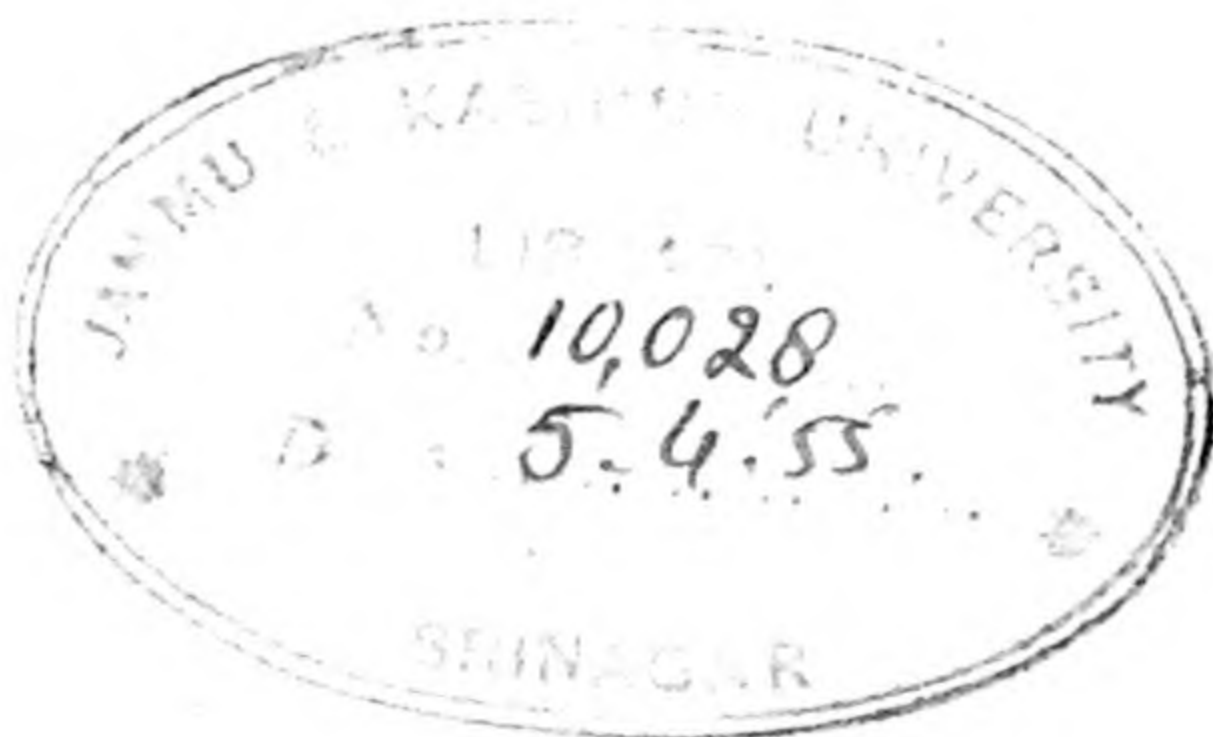
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